The Nation.

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The Week.

THE important feature of the Ohio Republican Convention was not its nomination for the Governorship which is to be filled next fall, but its attitude toward the United States Senatorship that will be disposed of by the Legislature then to be chosen. The selection of Maj. McKinley as the candidate for Governor was inevitable, his championship of the Tariff Bill passed by the last Congress rendering his nomination a necessity of the situation. It was never a question whether he was likely to make the best run; the Convention was bound to make him the head of the State ticket. There ought to have been as little room for question about the Senatorship. In ripe experience as a public man, in proved qualifications for the Senatorship, in obvious fitness to render the state effective service during the next few years in that office, no Ohio Republican is for a moment to be thought of in comparison with John Sherman. If the sober judgment of members of the party throughout the country could be pronounced, it would prove all but unanimous in the opinion that the best interests of the nation dictate his re-election. Notwithstanding this, the veteran leader found the opposition to him in his own party so strong that he was forced to decline the position of presiding officer of the Convention, which he would have liked, and even to withdraw his name as a candidate for the Senatorship, "except on the voluntary tender of the office to him after the election of the next General Assembly." Except for this complete surrender he would have been subjected to public humiliation by the advocates of ex-Gov. Foraker, who are bent upon putting that remarkable political character in Mr. Sherman's place.

A State campaign ought to turn on State issues, and there are plenty of such issues in Ohio this year. The Republican platform, indeed, devotes some space to them, but they are bound to play a secondary part in the contest. The attention of the people is engrossed with the bearing of the election upon national affairs, and their verdict will be governed by their views upon questions of Federal, rather than State, administration. In this respect the canvass of 1891 in Ohio bears a striking resemblance to that of 1875, when Rutherford B. Hayes ran against William Allen for Governor. If the Republican nomination of Mr. McKinley is followed by the renomination of Gov. Campbell as the Democratic candidate, as now seems probable, the success of either will assure the State a good Executive, and the contest will be more than ever one of national policies. The chances undoubtedly favor the Republicans. Ohio has never failed to go Republican in a Presidential election, and when a State canvass is made to assume a national aspect, as in 1875, the Republicans are always likely to come out ahead. Moreover, it must be remembered that the "tidal wave" of 1890 was felt less in Ohio than in any other State. While Pennsylvania on one side elected a Democratic Governor, and Indiana on the other a Democratic Secretary of State, Ohio gave about 11,000 plurality to the Republican candidate for Secretary of State, and the Democrats secured a majority of the Representatives in Congress only by reason of a most outrageous gerrymander. Finally, the Republican managers throughout the country recognize the disastrous effect which the defeat of McKinley would have upon the party, and will concentrate all their resources upon the State—and their resources are greater than those of the Democrats.

The value and usefulness of courage in politics have been shown in a very striking way in the campaign which has been in progress in Mississippi during the past three months. The sub-treasury scheme of the Farmers' Alliance obtained a very strong foothold among the farmers of the State, when it was put forth by the Alliance during the winter and spring. The Alliance made the scheme the chief issue in the campaign for the election of a Legislature which was to choose a United States Senator to succeed Senator George. It sent out letters to all candidates for the Senatorship, including Mr. George, asking for their views about the scheme. Mr. George did not flinch from the issue, but met it squarely in a long letter, in which he exposed with great clearness and force the fallacies of the project. He followed this up with other letters and speeches, and for two months or more he has been conducting a genuine campaign of education with the sub-treasury scheme as a text. His chief opponent has been Maj. Ethan Barksdale, who, from the outset, took a position exactly opposite to the courageous one taken by Mr. George, expressing complete approval of the views of the Alliance, and advocating the sub-treasury plan with arguments worthy of the wildest disciple of cheap money. It has been revealed during the past few days that in taking this course Barksdale turned his back upon opinions which he, as an editor, expressed only a few years ago, and some of his editorial articles of that period have been reproduced in which he denounced the sub-treasury plan as the "most stupendous centralization project that has been conceived by the most extreme consolidationist," and declared that the "power of corruption that it would confer, the patronage that it would build up, the swarms of officeholders and pensioners that it would inflict upon the country, is a picture which the imagination grows weary in attempting to paint." Barksdale's cause was on the wane before these revelations were made, and is now regarded as hopeless.

Gov. Pattison has signed the new ballot act for Pennsylvania, and it is therefore a law. It will go into effect in March, 1892, and the next Presidential election will be held under its provisions. It is, as we have pointed out, a very defective measure, and most unfair in its provisions relating to independent and third-party nominations. It will, however, give the State a secret, official ballot, and consequently will prevent intimidation, bribery, and many other of the familiar devices practised under the old system. Still, we think the Governor might justifiably have vetoed the measure, for our experience in New York has shown that in many respects a defective ballot-reform law is worse than none.

Although the Illinois Legislature refused to pass a general woman-suffrage bill, it enacted a law giving the sex the right to vote in school elections. Representative Parsons, says a correspondent of the *Woman's Journal*, "pointed out the success of women as teachers and county superintendents, and paid a glowing tribute to Miss Mary Allen West as the best superintendent of schools in the West. He made an eloquent plea for the right of women to vote for the school boards that were to employ teachers for their children." The bill passed the House by a vote of 82 to 44. So far as appears, there was no opposition to it from the "Women Remonstrants" who protested against a general bill. Every such partial measure undoubtedly helps to hasten the coming of universal suffrage, in no way more than by the influence of its successful working in overcoming the opposition and indifference of women themselves.

The opening of the new Federal Court of Appeal in this district last week was, we were glad to see, marked by solemnity suited to the occasion; for the creation of a Court of Appeal to share the labors of the Supreme Court is an occasion of some solemnity in the judicial history of the Government, and it was well to surround it with some ceremonial. It was pleasant, for instance, to see the judges in silk gowns, in this city, which has suffered so much from want of more external dignity and formality in its courts of justice. The theory that costume is a matter of no importance has long held its ground all over the country, with most unfortunate effects on the manners of the male sex, and its effects have been nowhere more perceptible than in courts of law. The upward progress of the race from mere savagery has been in no outward sign so distinctly marked as in dress, and to ignore its importance is to ignore the relation of the eye to the imagination. In every civilized country everybody, in spite of himself, associates what a man wears, in some degree at least, with his character. He considers certain costumes ap-

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propriate to certain callings and certain mental and moral characteristics, and he makes inferences from dress as to these characteristics. In other words, he believes, consciously or unconsciously, in the existence of suitability in clothing. A minister dressed like a sporting man would offend everybody, and a judge of a court of record produces the same effect, though in a less degree. A minister in a gown in the pulpit, too, is undoubtedly a more impressive personage and a greater authority, even to the most cynical- agnostic, than a minister in an overcoat—something we have ourselves seen. A judge in a silk gown, for similar reasons, is, both to the audience in his court and to himself, a different man from a judge in a black velvet sack and yellow waistcoat—something we have also seen.

The *Christian Union* gives a supplementary explanation of its view that a minister may honorably remain in the service of a denomination, though rejecting important articles of the creed. It now says that such a course is legitimate only when the minister frankly and fearlessly avows his dissent, and seems to think that, as long as no secret is made of heretical opinions, there is no impropriety in continuing in the service of the sect to which they are repugnant. Now, we have no wish to express a judgment on particular cases, but we think the essentially immoral nature of the general position is clear from a single consideration. Suppose a young candidate for the ministry were "frankly and fearlessly to avow his dissent" from leading articles of belief in any church; it is perfectly certain that he would never be allowed to enter the ministry of that church. He goes in only on condition of agreement, and there is a tacit understanding, in some cases there is an express understanding, that he will stay in no longer than he continues to agree with the creed he is engaged to expound and defend. How, then, is it possible to relieve a man, in the position where the *Christian Union* would place him, of the appearance, at least, of having obtained his ministerial standing under false pretences? With his present views avowed, he could not possibly obtain that standing in the first instance. What moral right has he to throw the burden of initiating a prosecution upon his church, to force him to relinquish a position accorded him on an understanding which he has violated?

A few additional letters and telegrams which passed between the Comptroller of the Currency, Mr. Lacey, and the Bank Examiner, Mr. Drew, in reference to the affairs of the Keystone Bank, are published in Philadelphia. There is not much fresh information in them except two casual references to members of the Wanamaker family. In a confidential telegram sent by Mr. Lacey to Mr. Drew, on the date following the closing of the bank, occurs this instruction: "Call at southeast corner of Eighteenth and Spruce Streets at eight o'clock this evening and give Mr. Thomas B. Wanamaker close estimates of assets and liabilities." In a letter to Mr. Lacey, two days later, Mr. Drew says:

> "The District Attorney showed me confidentially a despatch from the United States Attorney-General at Washington, directing the District Attorney to take no action in Mr. Marsh's case for the present. I do not know what that comes from precisely, but I thought I ought to inform you of the matter. Mr. W. has consented to return the uncancelled old certificates of stock for a consideration from Mrs. Lucas, as I learn, and I expect to have them in my possession to-morrow."

The Mr. W. referred to is the good John Wanamaker, who, according to his own confession, had been trying to get $100,000 or more for those "old certificates of stock" before the bank failed (though he had been told by Marsh that they were fraudulent) and $50,000 after the bank had been closed. He has declared that he turned them over to the Lucas estate for nothing; Drew says in the above letter that Mr. W. returned them "for a consideration." This is an interesting point for further inquiry. Mr. W.'s memory played him false about delaying the appointment of a receiver, and it may have played him false about this stock. It is much to be regretted that Mrs. Lucas is in Europe and cannot give her recollection of the affair.

There appears to be no doubt that in designing the *Gloriana*, the famous Rhode Island boat-builder Herreshoff has presented the world with a yacht of a distinctly new type. She is a keel boat, not a centre-board, yet she has demonstrated her ability to outsail the swiftest centre-boards which American ingenuity has been able to devise. In her presence the old gibe at American fast yachts as mere "skimming-dishes" must be withdrawn from further service. She is a cutter on the English model, but with entirely novel additions. She is cut away in front even more than the *Thistle* was, but instead of the *Thistle's* sharp bows, she has blunt bows, resembling the head of a shark. The line of the keel is carried straight up till it meets the curve of the deck. There is no curve at all at the forefoot. In explaining these bows, which are an entirely new departure in yacht-building, Mr. Herreshoff said, long before his yacht had touched water, when surprise was expressed at the hard curves of the load-water line: "That makes very little difference. The water does not go that way." His theory was that most of the water displaced goes underneath the boat, not around the sides, and hence he made the curves below the water line as easy as possible. The five trials which the *Gloriana* has had, in all kinds of weather, have demonstrated the wisdom of his view. The yacht sailed away from all competitors so completely that there was almost no second in any of the races. In the heavy wind and sea of Thursday her blunt nose rode easily over the waves, while other yachts plunged their sharp ones into them. Her remarkable achievements will not be overlooked by English yachtsmen.

The annual report of the Austro-Hungarian Consul-General in this city for the fiscal year 1889 to 1890 is a document replete with valuable statistics concerning the commercial relations of the United States and Austria-Hungary. Curiously enough, even its tables of the immigration from the various provinces of the Empire furnish only an approximate total, owing to the rule of the Immigration Office at this port, according to which the Polish-speaking immigrants from Galicia and Russian Poland are classed as "Poles," and not credited to Austria and Russia respectively. Until recently, the Poles of Posen were ranked with them, but a remonstrance of the German Government has, we believe, resulted in their classification as German subjects. Exclusive of Galicians and some Polish-speaking Silesians, the emigration from Austria-Hungary during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1890, amounted to 56,199 persons, the two countries outranking Austria being Great Britain and Ireland, with 122,754 immigrants, and Germany, with 92,427. The total value of the imports from the Empire was $9,331,000, the articles highest in the list being buttons, $1,679,000, or 52 per cent. of the total importation of buttons from all countries; beet sugar, $1,577,000, as against $16,031,000 from Germany; prunes, $857,000, or 48 per cent. of the importation from all countries—a falling off of one-half since 1884; porcelain and earthenware $543,000, as against $3,951,000 from Great Britain, and $1,165,000 from France; linen goods, $519,000, as against $13,120,000 from Great Britain, and $1,941,000 from Germany; chemicals, $385,000, as against $2,918,000 from Great Britain, $2,718,000 from Germany, $2,220,000 from Italy, etc.; silks, $338,000, as against $15,000,000 from France and $10,200,000 from Germany; cotton goods, $265,000, as against $11,886,000 from Great Britain, $8,440,000 from Germany, and $6,222,000 from Switzerland; fans (other than palm-leaf fans), $200,000, or 42 per cent. of the importation from all countries; jewelry, $187,000, as against $635,000 from France and $291,000 from Germany.

In glassware Austria still retains its supremacy, the imports being $638,000, or 32 per cent. of the total importation of this article; but whereas the imports from Germany, France, England, and Belgium are constantly increasing, those from Austria-Hungary are declining. Similarly, the importation of woollens, in spite of the well-known excellence of some of the Moravian and Bohemian cloths, has fallen from $282,000 in 1887 to $142,000—an absolutely insignificant figure as contrasted with the $29,000,000 from Great Britain and $13,500,000 each from Germany and France. The formerly flourishing glove industry of Austria now furnishes but $171,000 to the list of imports, Germany, with $2,078,000, having become an almost successful rival of France, whose figures are $2,348,000; and even Belgium, $362,000, Italy, $286,000, and Great Britain, $252,000, have

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already outstripped Austria. The importation of pearl buttons, which furnished the second largest item in the above list, has, since the passage of the McKinley Bill, practically ceased, and the total importation of buttons of every kind will probably not reach $150,000 for the coming fiscal year. It would be interesting to learn in this connection how many of the ruined Vienna manufacturers of pearl buttons are now working in Newark factories in competition with American free labor. A pertinent inquiry into the genuineness of the "Pilsen" beer so extensively—and expensively—sold all over the United States, is suggested by the smallness of the total importation of beer in barrels, only $29,670. The votaries of Gambrinus will find food for melancholy reflection in these figures, as will those of Bacchus in the $73,780 credited to the total importation of Austrian and Hungarian wines, including Tokays. The Consul-General very properly lays stress on the need of supplying the American market with "healthful" Hungarian wines.

Cuba is in a state of high exasperation with Spain just now over the proposal of the Minister for the Colonies to lay a tax upon sugar plantations. This is the neat and characteristically Spanish way of nullifying the advantage given Cuban sugar-growers by the opening of the ports of the United States to their product. Still, it must be said, there is reason in Minister Fabié's position. If you have insisted upon reductions in the tariff rates on goods coming from the United States, he says to the Cubans, in order to secure the continuance of the abolition of duties on your sugar in the latter country, you must give me a chance to make up the resulting deficiency somewhere, and how can I do it more justly than by taxing the men who are to reap the greatest advantage from the treaty? But it does not strike the Cuban mind in that way. Telegrams of urgent and almost fierce protest have been sent from the leading mercantile and financial associations of the Island, and the prospect of a new and burdensome tax has entirely destroyed the good impression made by the home Government's complaisance in acceding to Cuba's wishes in the matter of the treaty with this country. Certainly if the Cubans take counsel of experience, they may be sure that all they have to do is to make their protests angry enough, and the obnoxious tax will be dropped. For ten years, now, it has been a continual demand on the part of Cuba, and a continual yielding on the part of Spain—though the yielding has usually been too late and grudging to have a conciliatory effect. The one great cause of complaint remaining was the Spanish tariff on tobacco; this is almost forgotten in the rage at the proposed new tax on real estate.

One of the most important projects of the late Secretary of the Mexican Treasury was an inter-State conference for the purpose of arriving at a plan to do away with the antiquated system of internal custom-houses, and to mitigate the enormities of direct taxation on trade practised by States and municipalities. The delegates met at the end of last November, and the Convention referred all the matters in debate to a committee. The latter's report was made public last April, and is expected to receive the approval of the conference, and afterwards of the States and the Federal Congress. The report deals with the old abuses in a sweeping way. It abolishes all domestic custom-houses, and all taxes, direct or indirect, upon internal commerce. Then it vests the power of levying all direct internal taxes in the Federal Government, and provides for an equitable distribution among the States of certain parts of the revenue thus obtained. Altogether the results of this conference, with the prospect of their speedy acceptance by the States and the nation, mark a prodigious step in advance for Mexican commercial interests.

The general dissatisfaction with the attitude of the Administration in Brazil towards the new Constitution, of which we lately spoke, has led to the formation of a solidified party of the Opposition, styling itself the "Republican Constitutional Party." The new organization launched a declaration of principles and aims on May 1, signed by high officers of the army and navy, ex-Ministers and ex-Governors of States, and many members of the two houses of Congress. The idea seems to be to group as many of the old Republicans as possible, together with all sincere supporters of the new form of government who are offended by the present reactionary Cabinet, in order to bring about an agitation which will compel the Executive to show greater respect to the Constitution. The declaration of the ends to be striven for by the new party conveys by implication the complaints brought against the elements in power. It enumerates among the results aimed at: "The restoration of the provisions of the Constitution plainly violated, full autonomy for the States, intellectual liberty and freedom of labor, the most complete guarantee of untrammelled elections, measures of the strictest economy for the reëstablishment of credit, the equilibrium of the budget, the quickening of the productive forces of the country, and the improvement of the moral and physical conditions of the working classes." The late reorganization of the Cabinet, with the bestowal of the finance portfolio upon an old Republican, Gov. Braziliense, is said to be a concession to the new party, already extorted from the fears of the Administration.

Our withers are not altogether unwrung these days in the matter of banking scandals, but the report on the conduct of the National Bank of the Argentine Republic, recently made public, probably shows a worse state of things than will appear even in Philadelphia. At any rate it brings out in a clear light the fearful extent of debauchery among Argentine public officials, and reveals something of the wild and dishonest financial methods that finally wrecked the public credit. The Investigating Committee found proofs of criminal imprudence in the loan of money to irresponsible firms and individuals, but uncovered the worst scandals when it explored the relations of the bank to the Government. "The bank and the Government went hand in hand." Whatever modifications in the banking laws were desired were easily obtained, but only on condition of a close alliance with the members of the Administration. "The results of this intimacy were loans to members of the Government and to all sorts of politicians whose paper was worthless." Then there was the headlong rush of the bank into speculation, and the lending of its name to push the most inflated schemes. Vast sums were lost of which no trace remains, and many debts are marked "paid" on the books though the loans are still outstanding. "In a word," says the report, "the situation can be summed up as follows: Dishonest management of the bank, complete disorder in accounts, free disposal of the bank's funds by persons with no authority to touch them, acceptance of salaries by employees twenty or thirty times as great as those authorized by the directors."

The recognition of the Chilian Congressionalists as belligerents by Bolivia will greatly increase their facilities for obtaining supplies of one sort or another, and the refusal of the French Government to permit Balmaceda to purchase and fit out ships of war in France is an example which will probably be followed by all the other maritime Powers, saves the Junta from what would be a great danger, and is really as useful as formal recognition would be. Their course, too, will be morally aided by the performances of Balmaceda's "Congress," which has been arming him with powers that convert him into a despot of the Hippolyte type. There is something comic in their going through the form of passing acts for this purpose, because he has formally announced that when he disapproves of what Congress does, it is his right and duty to disperse it or lock it up. He asserted this right against the last or Constitutional Congress, and *à fortiori* he would assert it against the present little private Congress of his own, of which he ordered the election since the fighting began. He is as grotesque a specimen of the South American dictator as we have ever had, but it must be admitted that the Congressionalists must bear part of the shame and discredit of him, for they have never explained how he came to be elected President in a country in which Presidential nominations are still made, on our original American plan, by a small coterie of leading men, or at least leading families. He must before his nomination have given some indication of the kind of person he was. The Congressionalists are being badly served, too, in the matter of spreading information. Although they are seeking foreign aid and sympathy, they are doing very little to influence American or European opinion through news of the situation.

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SECRETARY FOSTER'S SILVER RÉGIME.

SECRETARY FOSTER'S speech read to the Ohio Republican Convention shows that he means to use the discretion given him by the act of 1890 to coin all the silver he can lay hands on. He said in the speech:

"For nearly a year since, we have been buying 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month, paying for it with Treasury notes, and have and will coin 2,000,000 ounces per month until the 1st of July next. After that it is *discretionary* with the Secretary of the Treasury as to how much will be coined. Since the Allison Bill of 1878 was passed, we have coined $402,873,158, and this whole sum is now in active circulation, mainly in the form of its paper equivalent, the silver certificate. Yet our gold and silver coins and their paper representatives have been maintained at equal purchasing value, and I do not see the slightest danger, under the present policy, of not being able to continue the existing status between the two metals."

It was the general understanding of conservative people when the Silver Coinage Act of 1890 was passed, that the following section was a sort of saving clause, which would prevent a silver deluge:

"Sec. 3. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall each month coin 2,000,000 ounces of silver bullion purchased under the provisions of this act into standard silver dollars until the 1st day of July, 1891, and after that time he shall coin of the silver bullion purchased under the provisions of this act as much as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes herein provided for; and any gain or seigniorage arising from such coinage shall be accounted for and paid into the Treasury."

It was supposed that the Secretary would so construe his discretion as to give us the smallest possible addition to the existing volume of silver. If Mr. Windom had lived, this expectation would doubtless have been justified. But it would appear that his successor takes a large view of the nature of his discretion, and means to find in the term "necessary to provide for the Treasury notes herein provided for" the means of making still larger additions to our silver certificates than we have been making under the old law. That is to say, he may construe the term "necessary" in such a way as to authorize him to issue more certificates than the exact amount of silver purchased from month to month, on some pretext satisfactory to himself, relying on the silver passion of the next Congress to prevent his being called to account for it.

We should receive this report with more incredulity if we felt sure that we knew exactly what Mr. Foster's notions about finance were. He is, it is true, opposed to unlimited free coinage, and warns his party against it in the speech which lies before us. But he manages at the end of his warnings to throw in the following sneer at those who feared that the Allison Bill of 1878 was the beginning of an attack on the gold standard: "I do not propose to engage in prophecy, or undertake to predict what would happen if this country were to adopt unlimited free coinage. We had many prophets who foretold that gold would soon be at a premium when, in 1878, the Allison Bill, providing for the coinage of $2,000,000 per month, was passed, thus placing us on a silver basis. We coined $2,000,000 per month up to August 14, 1890."

Now, does he know, or does he not, why the Allison Bill did not create a premium on gold? This is a very important question. He may think that it was because we needed the silver, and therefore readily absorbed it. But if he thinks it was because the silver dollars are accepted as being "as good as gold" by the Government, the sneer at the gold prophets is simply silly. Silver, as long as it is treated as gold by the Treasury, can hardly put a premium on gold or drive it out of the country.

Another passage in the Ohio speech suggests other questions of a similar character:

"Our gold, our silver, our gold and silver certificates, our greenbacks and Treasury notes, and our national-bank notes, are all at par with gold. With all of our silver, and with all of our paper money, we are on a gold basis, and there we will stay. To get $60,000,000 of our gold, Great Britain and other European countries paid a premium to get the yellow metal from us, thus putting their own paper money at discount so far as American gold is concerned. Hence it has come to pass that in England, which is a single gold-standard country, American gold has been at a premium over their paper money, while the United States, with the double standard, holds its silver and paper money at par with gold."

Now, a financier who gravely tells a large body of his fellow-citizens that drafts on the gold of this country, in the ordinary course of exchange, to meet a temporary demand in Europe, puts Bank of England notes "at a discount so far as *American gold* is concerned," and that "*American gold* has been at a premium" over Bank of England notes, certainly deserves the closest kind of watching. If he knew no better than this, he can hardly be called fit to manage the finances of a great nation. If he did know better, and concocted this as an ingenious misrepresentation for political purposes, is he fit to be trusted with discretionary power to enlarge the currency? It is hardly necessary to say to such of our readers as have left school, that "the premium on American gold in English paper money" is simply the rate of exchange necessary to draw gold from any country to the Bank of England at this present juncture, and as such is as much a premium on any gold as on American gold. Gold during the past week has reached the Bank of England not only from New York, but from Natal, Bombay, and the West Indies. Why does it go to London? Because it is for the moment worth a little more in London than in the place from which it is sent. The process of drawing it to London is explained every day in the financial columns, as in the following paragraph from the *Evening Post* of Wednesday week:

"The par of sterling exchange is 4.86.6. The rate for demand sterling bills at which gold can be exported to London without loss is 4.88⅞ for bars and 4.89¼ for coin, and the rate at which it can be imported without loss 4.83¾."

When the present demand for it in London is over, we shall, if we need it here, get it back by precisely the same process—that is, offering for it a trifle above the par of exchange. If Mr. Foster were to go into any banking-house in any civilized country with this story that Bank of England notes were at a discount in American gold, he would be listened to with pity. And yet it probably depends on his judgment and discretion whether we shall or shall not be brought down to a silver standard within the next two years. He is in desperate straits just now, having both to save the party from the charge of having emptied the Treasury and to save the Treasury from having to ask for an extension from its creditors.

THE ECONOMISTS AND THE PUBLIC.

AMONG all our writers on economic subjects none commands a wider audience or is heard with more pleasure and respect than President Francis A. Walker. His clean-cut style, precision of statement, skill in the picturesque array of facts and arguments, and logical fairness in dealing with every problem he discusses, all combine to make it a pleasure to discuss a question with him even when one differs from his views. He has seldom put forth a more thought-provoking paper than his recent presidential address before the American Economic Association, which has quite recently been published in full. The address derives its greatest interest from the fact that it is a typical example of the views taken by the large majority of our professed economic teachers on the subject of their relation to current popular opinion, and thus supplies an excellent text for considering the question whether these positions are those best adapted to gain the ends which all economists have in view. He graphically describes the great interest now taken by the public in social problems, and the spirit of dissatisfaction with the existing order of things so rife among the laboring classes, the wild theories put forth under the name of "nationalism," and the attacks from the magazine and the pulpit upon every economic principle, as a rising tide of thought which threatens to overwhelm every position hitherto taken by the economists. The latter have been driven from what was once the shore, far inland, and those who refused to join in the rout now view the scene from the roofs and tree-tops in which they have had to take refuge.

So far as the ends in view are concerned, we should probably agree with the speaker in all his views—both of the nature and tendency of these movements and of the necessity of guarding ourselves against the catastrophe threatened by them. But in the practical measures to be adopted, and especially in the attitude which economists are to assume, we are unable to reconcile his views with the dictates of practical sagacity. When he sees in the ranks of "the passionate reformers" the Socialists, the nationalists, and all others "who have for the time lost all measure of difficulty, all sense of resistance, all memory of experience," "few or no perverts from a sound political economy, but only a host of as yet rather disorderly and undisciplined converts," we would inquire from what errors and to what sound doctrines they have been converted. When he says that the revolution now in progress is making every man and every woman an economist, though a pretty poor one, and that the whole nation is at school in political economy, he belittles the science of which he is so distinguished an expounder.

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Among the essentials of the relation of scholar and teacher are that the scholar shall feel that he does not know and that the teacher does know. But the most prominent of these pupils are people who think they already know, or at least, if they have a modest estimate of their own knowledge, they certainly do not think that the economists know any more than they do. And how can they gain confidence in their teachers when leading expounders of the science confess that they do not know what will be its fate after the undisciplined crowd has finished its attack? We say that the science is belittled by such a view, because the superficial ideas derived from common talk are placed on a level with that discipline of the understanding, which can be acquired only by patient study and thought under the guidance of a trained teacher. We cordially agree upon the general fact that the public is to be taught and can be taught; we differ as to the spirit and nature of the teaching required. This seems to us to be clearly indicated by a careful consideration of the points in which the public need instruction.

One great difficulty in the way of the application of sound economic principles to legislation is the universal diffusion of economic theories which, if carried to their logical conclusion, would put an end to all progress, and reduce us to the condition of a tribe of savages. What these theories are can only be learned inductively from such measures, enacted or proposed, as the McKinley Bill, the exclusion of the Chinese, the oleomargarine tax, the free coinage of silver, the New York prison-labor law, the prohibition of printing notes by machinery, not to mention a score of other measures urged by organized labor as essential to the well-being of the workingman. These measures derive all their vitality from one idea which every untaught and unthinking member of an industrial community imbibes as naturally as the babe does its mother's milk—the idea that whatever comes into competition with labor by cheapening its product without corresponding consumption is an evil, and that whatever increases the demand for labor, by either consuming its product or making more labor necessary for a given consumption, is a good. The Chinese were excluded because they gathered fruit very effectively and very cheaply and consumed almost nothing. Plate-printing was prohibited because it then cost more labor to print the notes. The employment of prison labor was forbidden because it was supposed that unpaid labor was competing with honest paid labor. The McKinley Bill appeals to nothing but the bugbear of foreign competition. Oleomargarine was taxed because it was cheaper than butter. The International Copyright Bill required type to be set in this country because more work was thus given the printers to do. The cry which carried all these measures was at bottom the same that called for the destruction of the machine when the spinning-jenny commenced its operations.

Where shall we stop if we continue to listen to this cry? Stopping-place there is none short of almost total prohibition of foreign trade and new labor-saving devices. No Chinaman is so remorseless a competitor with our labor as an effective machine, which consumes nothing but the oil and coal necessary to keep it going. If there is no danger of our reaching this logical stopping-point, it is only because of the impracticability of putting these popular theories into operation. The greatest difficulty—and, therefore, our principal salvation from them—is to be found in the selfishness of mankind. The fact that the public can get their products cheaper by every improvement in production, and that the men who make these improvements can profit by their use, operates more powerfully in favor of progress than all the arguments put forth by the labor thus displaced. But how long can we count on this force? If philanthropy is to take the place of money-making, and the popular cry against competition to receive more and more favor, how long before the retrograde movement in the direction we have indicated will become irresistible? Here is clearly an opportunity for the economist to point out to the public the error of its views, to which we earnestly invite the attention of all economic teachers.

Not only does President Walker fail to see this point of difference between himself and the public he wishes to instruct, but his attitude in relation to it is the most unsatisfactory feature of his address. There is a certain weakening on every point where the economist and the public touch, which will seem to the latter a strong hint that they have only to push hard to carry their point. Most surprising of all is it to see such an authority lecturing the economists on the arbitrary and unreal character of their assumptions and their haughty and contemptuous spirit, and repeating the stale objections to the economic man of Ricardo and Mill. Nothing ever taught by the economists is so unreal as the principles of physical science taught in the institution over which he presides. To say that the building of every railroad in this country, the establishment of every factory, the opening of every mine, and the sailing of every ship was dictated by the hope on the part of the projectors of getting dividends on their capital, and by no other consideration, is a closer approximation to reality than a great majority of the elementary principles of physics. The Carnot heat-engine works without friction, has walls which are absolute conductors or absolute non-conductors at pleasure, and is in every way such a machine as no man ever did or ever could construct or realize; yet to understand its workings is the first requisite of the student of the steam-engine. The fact is, that every branch of scientific knowledge becomes unreal, in the sense in which the word is used by objectors to the Ricardian economy, in proportion as it is developed. Principles cannot be learned or even conceived except in the abstract, and the more we abstract them, the more unreal they become.

Why is it that a man of the wide intelligence of Prof. Walker, who not only accepts this unreality in every department of physical science, but would not give a degree to a student that had not mastered it, lays aside all sound views of the necessity of things when he comes to economics? We hold that the economic student who is unacquainted with the Ricardian economy can never have any better idea of the science than the student of engineering who is ignorant of thermodynamics can have of the steam-engine; and there are plenty of passages in Walker's 'Political Economy' to show that the author really holds the same view. Then why talk to this new crowd of would-be students in such slighting terms of the only system of economics they can ever have time to study? Why try to persuade them that the "practical man" is right in his contempt for the "theorist"?

A CASE OF DEVELOPMENT.

THE naturalists have made us familiar with the adaptation of organisms to their environment, and with the development under favorable conditions of strange species which begin with but a slight divergence from the usual types. The student of history and politics sometimes is able to point to analogous phenomena; but his illustrations are not often so clear and simple as to bring out effectively the working of the forces he studies. It happens that the McKinley Tariff Act supplies a case of the sort which he needs: a case where a change from the usual mode of levying duties, at first apparently of not much moment, has developed, under the favoring surroundings of unlimited protection, into a wonderfully complicated system, which betrays only to the eyes of the expert its relation to the original divergence.

We refer to the duties on woollen goods, in which a new feature appeared in 1861, and gradually developed into the extraordinary maze of the McKinley Act. We may take as a type of the whole the duty on woollen cloths, whose history will serve to indicate the general development. In the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861, the new feature first appeared: a compound duty on woollen goods, both specific and ad valorem—12 cents per pound, plus 25 per cent. The specific duty was meant merely to compensate for the duty on raw wool, which then was 3 cents per pound on the common grades of wool. It was supposed that about four pounds of wool were needed in order to make one pound of cloth. A specific duty on cloth of four times the amount of the duty on wool would therefore put the domestic manufacturer in the same position, as regards his foreign competitors, as if he got his wool free of duty. The extra duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem alone was to give real protection.

Such was the first unobtrusive change. In 1864 the new system began to expand. The duty on the class of wool chiefly used went up to 6 cents a pound; the specific duty on cloths accordingly went up to four times that amount, 24 cents a pound. The ad-valorem duty also went up, from 25 to 40 per cent.; this change being only a part of the upward movement which all duties showed in the tariff legislation of the war.

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When the war was over, and there was a general disposition to overhaul the hurried financial legislation resorted to in its course, the representatives of the woollen-manufacturers came forward with a proposal which purported merely to continue the legislation of 1861, and to fix an effective protective duty of no more than 25 per cent. Their proposals were carried out in the monumental wool and woollens act of 1867, which marks a third and important stage in the development of our new species. The duty on wool had now grown—we may disregard certain details which somewhat complicate the situation—to 11½ cents a pound. Four times that amount, or 46 cents, would be the compensating duty per pound of woollen cloth. But it was suggested in 1867 that there were also duties on dyestuffs, oils, and other things used by manufacturers; wherefore the compensating duty was raised to the round sum of 50 cents per pound. Next came the ad-valorem duty, which was to yield the moderate net protection of 25 per cent. But here it was quietly pointed out that the manufacturers had to pay internal taxes, imposed during the war and still maintained in 1867, on their goods or materials, and that an extra 10 per cent. must be added to compensate for these. So the ad-valorem duty was fixed at 35 per cent., and the total duty on woollen cloths had grown to the dimensions of 50 cents per pound plus 35 per cent. ad valorem.

After 1867 the internal taxes were quickly abolished; the duties on oils and dyestuffs also disappeared almost entirely; but the woollen duties remained intact. The protectionists, notwithstanding the strong agitation for tariff reform, and notwithstanding the uncertain attitude which the Republican party then held on the tariff, managed to fend off all reductions in the woollen schedule. No change came until the general revision of 1883. Then a new feature appeared, which served still further to complicate the already complicated system, and began the development which has finally led to the wonderful and mysterious provisions of the McKinley Act. In 1883 the wool duty was somewhat reduced, to 10 cents a pound, leading naturally to some reduction in the specific duty on woollens. At the same time it was admitted that the specific duty had been unduly high on low-priced woollen goods, for which cheaper wool, or a good deal of cotton and shoddy, was used. Accordingly, the duty was reduced and also divided. On low-priced woollens, costing less than 80 cents per pound, the duty was 35 cents per pound specific (or compensating), plus 35 per cent. ad valorem. On dearer woollens, costing more than 80 cents per pound, the duty was 35 cents per pound, plus 40 per cent. ad valorem. It will be seen that the ad-valorem rate remained at 35 per cent., on dearer goods was even raised to 40 per cent. The original proposal of a net protection of only 25 per cent. had disappeared: it was no longer suited to the environment.

Last stage of all, we have the McKinley rates. Here the method of dividing the duty, begun in 1883, is carried still further. To give all the details would be wearisome; a few specimens will suffice. If goods are worth 30 cents per pound or less, the specific duty is 33 cents a pound, while the ad-valorem or protective duty is 40 per cent. On high-priced goods the specific rate goes up to 44 cents per pound, and the ad-valorem rate is as high as 50 per cent. The rates of the McKinley Act, and the mode in which they have evolved from the simple and unpretentious system of 1861, can best be shown by a tabular statement, which will serve to summarize this curious growth, and at the same time indicate the increasing rigor and complexity of the scheme at each successive stage:

Year.		Specific duty per pound.	Ad-valorem duty.
1861		12 cents.	25 per cent.
1864		24 cents.	40 per cent.
1867		50 cents.	35 per cent.
1883	On goods costing less than 80c.	35 cents.	35 per cent.
	On goods costing more than 80c.	35 cents.	40 per cent.
1890	On goods costing 30c. or less	33 cents.	40 per cent.
	On goods costing bet. 30 and 40c.	38½ cents.	40 per cent.
	On goods costing more than 40c.	44 cents.	50 per cent.

Let the reader reflect on the remarkable results to which this process of development has led. In the first place, the ad-valorem or purely protective duty has gone up to 40 per cent. on cheaper woollens, and to 50 per cent. on those of higher price; and we may add that on ready-made clothing, to which the same compound system has been applied, and on which the specific part of the duty is also higher than that on cloths, the ad-valorem duty has been made as high as 60 per cent. Who would expect these imposing rates to evolve from a modest net protection of 25 per cent.? Looking at the specific duties, the scientific inquirer will find developments even more surprising. He will find, for example, that on the second, or intermediate, class into which woollens are divided—those worth between 30 and 40 cents per pound—the specific duty is 38½ cents per pound. Now, this specific duty is compensating; it is supposed to represent merely the extra expense to which the American manufacturer is put because of the duties imposed on the wool he uses. But the foreign goods against which he is protected are supposed, by the classification and valuation of the act itself, to be worth between 30 and 40 cents only; whence it follows that the extra burden put on the American manufacturer by the wool duties must be as great as the total expense to the foreigner of manufacturing the goods entire and shipping them to this market. Such are the results of an environment of hot protection.

THE JOURNAL OF EMILY SHORE.

London, June 6, 1891.

This has been a wretched winter in London; and although the trees and flowers have now struggled into leaf and bloom, the severe weather is still loath to loose its hold on us. To an Irishman the winter has been one of political chaos and disorder. When I walk along Rotten Row, I look across at the Alexandra Hotel, and think of the brilliant company assembled there a brief twelvemonth ago at William O'Brien's wedding, when Mr. Parnell and Archbishop Croke, now so bitterly opposed, sat in the places of honor beside bride and bridegroom. All appeared unbroken love and harmony, and bright hopes regarding Ireland well founded. Now William O'Brien is in prison, separated from his wife, not even allowed to speak to his "best man" John Dillon, confined within the same walls. They are now powerless to prevent the certain ruin of many of those who, upon their promises and assurances, left their holdings and gave up their only means of support. It appears to me almost as if we were living in a different world. But fortunately there is even in addition to our own quiet hearths a world of the mind—of literature, the drama, and art—apart from politics, apart from the contentions of the hour; and in that world there occur events which often leave as lasting impressions upon us as those passing in the fierce glare of actual outward life. Such to me were the introductions, through the pages of the *Nation*, to Turgeneff, and later to Tolstoi's writings. The production of "Margaret Fleming" may cause this wintry spring to be remembered by many on your side of the Atlantic. Here, doubtless, "Ivanhoe" and "L'Enfant Prodigue" may mark it to others. By me it will be looked back to as the spring in which I first opened the 'Journal of Emily Shore,' a modest volume of 400 pages, published by Kegan Paul & Co.

Few works have ever more deeply affected me by their sweetness and simplicity, and withal their strength and beauty. "Only a woman's hair" were the words found to have been attached by Swift to a tress, presumably of Stella's. "Only a girl's journal," we may be inclined to exclaim as we take up this book; and yet, to those who read it, the impression is likely to remain permanent. The quotation on the title-page is then felt to be singularly appropriate:

> "So be it; there no shade can last
> In that deep dawn behind the tomb,
> But clear from marge to marge shall bloom
> The eternal landscape of the past."

We owe much to the editor of this little volume for admitting us within the sacred circle of the life and thoughts of Emily Shore, and for the taste with which the Journal has been edited.* The spirit with which the introduction opens pervades the succeeding pages:

> "A life whose light was blown out half a century ago, and whose whole span did not complete twenty years; a girl's life, which budded, blossomed, and faded in the close shade of a quiet English country home—here, it may be said, are scarcely materials of interest for the present generation. . . . She belongs to the order of beings of whom nature makes no replica, . . . and it might be suggested that the half century which has elapsed since this record was closed adds something, not only to the impression of definiteness and uniqueness left by its truthful disclosures, but to its general present value. A voice speaking to us in such distinct living tones across so wide a gulf is a witness in some degree of that change in feeling and point of view which on a large scale makes up the history of thought."

Emily Shore was born at Bury St. Edmunds, Suffolk, in 1819, and died of consumption at Madeira in 1839, aged nineteen years and six months. Her father was a clergyman of the English Church. Doubts regarding the Thirty-

* The addition of two of her girlish compositions appears to me a mistake. Her poetry had better have been inserted as it came in suitably through the Journal. The want of an index will be felt by many.

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nine Articles prevented his seeking a responsible cure. For the first twenty years of his married life he maintained his family by receiving and preparing for college five or six young men, "many of whom were of high social position and became known in the political world." The late Earl Granville was, I believe, among them. The easy and simple relations existing between the family and these pupils inspire some charming passages in the Journal:

"Emily Shore went to no high school, no college, no lectures. She passed no examinations and competed with no rivals. . . . Her teaching was that of nature and of love. . . . Her sole instructors were her parents, especially her father; but much, very much, was done by herself. She made her whole existence a happy school-room. [That it was a self-overtasked school-room most readers will believe.] It was, indeed, in a great degree to her wandering at dawn of day in the dewy woods, and her late watchings at open windows with a telescope, collecting plants, and studying the habits of birds and insects, that she owed the attack of lung disease which terminated so fatally and so soon."

She was blessed with a retentive memory and a power of rapidly acquiring knowledge, often committing to memory dates at the rate of over one hundred a day. She had an insatiable thirst for reading of the most wholesome kind. She had often on hand at once, besides regular studies, such books as Butler's 'Analogy,' 'History of India' (Mill's), Forster's 'Essays,' and Mrs. Somerville's 'Connexion.' Recovering from an accession of the disease that finally carried her off, she writes:

"I must keep up French by the reading of Lamartine. Italian I have begun. . . . 'Medea' to keep up Greek, and the 'Æneid' to keep up Latin. . . . I must begin German, which I am sighing for, and which my sisters are already learning. I am afraid I cannot make time for a sixth language, or I should learn Spanish also."

She delighted in sketching and had a singular facility in catching likenesses. In the few weeks at Madeira before her death, she collected plants, and learned to read and obtained a colloquial knowledge of Portuguese. She was constantly engaged in composition, and left behind many MSS. in writing as clear as print. With the exception of a few essays on the habits of birds in the *Penny Magazine*, it does not appear that she ever sent anything to the press. But it is not on account of her acquirements that her memory will rest with us. It will remain that of a sweet country girl, loving to all around her, tending her brothers and sisters and weaving romances for their amusement, immersed in the lives and fortunes of her pets, roaming the woods and heaths in the neighborhood of her beloved Woodbury in search of flowers, and following up song-birds. No reader is likely to forget the histories of her lark, her jay, and her jackdaw. One of the troubles of her thirteenth year was that "two of my stuffed birds are thrown away because they breed the moth." The portrait prefixed to the Journal, taken at Madeira a few weeks before her death, shows her with a stuffed bee-eater on her knee. The Journal was commenced in her twelfth year.

"Our family consists of papa, mamma, and five children. Papa is curate, during part of the year, of Mr. Cust, rector of Cockayne Hatley, a little village two miles and a half from us. We live at Potton, a little market town on the confines of Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire. Papa takes pupils; his greatest number is six."

The last entry given is made six weeks before her release:

"I feel weaker every morning, and I suppose am beginning to sink; still, I can at times take up my pen. I have had my long back-hair cut off. Dear papa wears a chain made from it. Mamma will have one too."

The journal extended to twelve volumes in MS. If we may judge from the specimen page, about one-sixth of its total bulk is published. It takes us back into a different world indeed from that in which we are now living:

"All the mob of Potton made a great riot to celebrate the passing of the Reform Bill, and paraded the town with the most hideous yells. . . . I do not suppose that any of them understood what they were so noisy about. . . . The boys in the street threw stones at us and behaved very impudently, which my aunt attributes to reform. What an idea!"

The best conveyance to Madeira was a 460-ton West Indiaman. We are occasionally taken away from her home to London, Cambridge, Tunbridge Wells, Hastings, Ely, the New Forest, Torquay, Exeter, Southsea; and wherever we accompany her, whether visiting a university or a printing-office, a dockyard or a steamboat, we have evidence of interested and intelligent observation. There is often a touch of 'Harry and Lucy' and 'Rollo' in the fireside and tea-table conversations. The main interest centres round Potton, where the story opens, and her dear Woodbury, two miles off, where the family moved shortly after an innocent love passage in her seventeenth year is half revealed.

After losing myself in the pages of this delightful book, I desired to visit the main localities mentioned. Potton is on a railway line forty miles north of London. It is a lovely old village, for the most part unchanged since Emily Shore's time; many of the houses built, perhaps, before Shakspere was born. An artist would there find endless subjects for his pencil. The adjacent country is the perfection of English scenery—entirely different from "the green valleys and rushing rivers" so characteristic of our own dear neighbor island. Slow-moving streams wind through broad pastures, rich sweeps of cultivation, and among deep woods. Every one is well-dressed and busy. The clean, brightly paned sanded cottages are a charm in themselves. We put up at the exquisitely neat "Rose and Crown." Brook House, a large brick mansion, "without the town, in front of a little brook or ditch," shut off by a railing from the road, greensward in front, an old cedar beside it, must be exactly as when Emily Shore resided within its walls. The thirteen public houses of her time have increased to twenty-eight, but, indeed, they look innocent in comparison to city gin-palaces. A fire-brigade hall erected in commemoration of the Queen's jubilee attests that Potton is still "celebrated for its fires." A lane, or "causeway," as the inhabitants called it, between thorn hedges, led to the old church on a hillside, wonderfully picturesque, as though it had grown where it stands through the centuries. She calls it "ordinary in appearance," and says it "contains some architectural curiosities." Restoration seldom adds to the interest of these old English churches, and Potton church has been "restored." Among the first inscriptions that caught our eyes was that to Mr. Whittingham, the vicar who was "one of the principal persons in Potton besides papa."

Some three miles through Everton brought us to the beloved Woodbury—an old mansion, among woods and gardens, on the margin of the "famous Gamblingay heath," commanding extensive views north and west. It has been remodelled and enlarged, but around is unchanged—the woods and heaths in which Emily used to wander, the old trees, the furze bushes under which she related stories to her brothers and sisters, "Foxhill Wood," and "White Wood," which she so often refers to. We in some measure realized her enthusiasm for the district. The quiet was broken only by the songs of birds. In no part of England are the nightingales more numerous. Every sense was charmed. Everton Church, which the family used to attend, is an interesting twelfth-century erection, with a later tower and perpendicular insertions. It is in itself worth the journey from London. We met none who could remember the family, or who had seen or heard of the Journal. Fortunately we had the volume with us, and by the help of a friendly resident and the vicar, who took us in to tea in his ideal English vicarage, we learned all that was possible within a short period to connect the present of the district with the past. We felt drawn very near to Emily and to the times of which she wrote.

One old man in Potton was suggested as likely to remember something. I traced him up late in the evening to the bar parlor of the "White Swan." There I found him one of a company given over to "churchwardens" and jugs of ale, discussing the news of the day, as probably in the same parlor the news of the Battle of the Boyne and the surrender at Yorktown were discussed. He remembered Mr. Shore occupying Brook House and Woodbury, and called to mind the pranks of some of the young noblemen he taught. But of Emily there was no trace of recollection. I have spoken of the order and civilization apparent all around, but the wide stretches of high cultivation without houses, the manner in which the people have been swept off and dissociated from the land, is painfully striking. When Ireland gets a little more chance—Ireland, where the people, or a large proportion of them, have all through held on to the soil with such desperate tenacity and through such bitter suffering—I think there will be a more natural and healthy state, at least so far as agriculture is concerned, than here in England. The circle in the Swan was on the whole radical and liberal. The discouragement thrown in the way of laborers' saving by the impossibility of their procuring small holdings, was spoken of, and I thought I never heard a more bitter comment on the present condition of affairs regarding land in England than the exclamation of one of the company: "A poor man obtain land here! Why, you might as well ask Sir —— [the principal proprietor in the district] to sell you some of the teeth out of his head. And what is more, if he were willing, he could not, it is so tied up." Surely this land of England—this land that has given birth to so many Emily Shores, where freedom has "broadened down from precedent to precedent"—will not much longer rest content under the trammels regarding the sale and division of land which at present bind down and hamper its people. So, in the parlor of the White Swan at Potton, our conversation quickly turned from a vain search after recollections of the past to discussions on things of the present. So even the Journal of this reserved maiden, with its spirit of sweet repose, the brief record of a life that closed more than half a century ago, has led us back to the burning problems of to-day; and so do Potton and Woodbury know her no more whose short life here has to some almost consecrated the district. Her journal will insure her a longer life on earth and a wider circle than she herself knew. D. B.

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THE SALON IN THE CHAMP DE MARS.

PARIS, May, 1891.

IN writing a notice of some seventeen hundred pictures, almost inevitably a few of the most important are accidentally overlooked. In my paper on the Champs-Élysées Salon, I find that I omitted all mention of MacEwen's "Chez le Bourgmestre," which is not only one of the best things he has yet shown, but, in point of artistic merit, among the most interesting contributions to the exhibition. It is a very small canvas, and the scene is the Dutch interior in which he has so often worked. It might be suggested that equally artistic results could have been obtained had he taken for subject the people and costumes of our time, as in his well-known picture of little Dutch boys, instead of those of a bygone age. It must also be admitted that there is a tendency in MacEwen's work, as in that of Melchers and other men of the same school, to repeat the same effects, the same methods, the same problems, until there is danger that these may be reduced to a mere formula, and their painting become as much of a convention as that of the older generation against whose academic formality it was in the beginning an expression of revolt. "Chez le Bourgmestre," for example, is lighted from the top, as is almost every picture MacEwen is now giving us, as are so many canvases in every modern French show, so that to-day there is as little individuality in this particular arrangement of light as in the frigid classicism of Bouguereau or the learned draughtsmanship of Laurens and Bonnat.

That the cry at present, whether from Impressionist or *Décadent*, is all for individuality is not the mere *fin de siècle* affectation it may seem; for individuality is but the new name for style, and without style no man's work, in art or literature, can have the least value. If with artist, as with author, "to know when one's self is interested is the first condition of interesting other people," the second is to express this interest in a manner which will at once stamp one's creations with a character of their own. To succeed in this is to write, or to paint, with style, with individuality. It is because neither condition is fulfilled in the great mass of the paintings at the Champs-Élysées that that exhibition is so tedious and dull; the fact that their necessity is at least realized gives zest and life to the collection in the Champ de Mars.

The genuine individuality there, however, is not as great as it at first appears to be. The striking activity displayed upon the walls, in the contrast it presents to the passive acceptation of established conventions in the old Salon, may be mistaken for originality; but it is really the result of the astonishing influence two or three unquestionably original men have had upon the present generation of painters, and even upon a number of the older men who had already developed methods of their own. A few leaders, like Whistler, Manet, Degas, and, above all, at the present moment, Claude Monet, have revolutionized the art of painting in our day, and the Champ de Mars Salon is the most eloquent tribute to their power. To appreciate the wide difference between active imitation and true individuality, one has but to turn from the many sham Whistlers to the master himself, who, with his usual love for a jest, exposes the false pretences of the much-vaunted modernity in painting by sending a portrait and a marine done twenty and thirty years ago, both masterpieces in their way, and both full of those qualities prized as the most modern attributes of art. They have been seen before, I think, and are too well known to be described in detail. One is the portrait of Miss Corder, or an arrangement in black; the other, a harmony in green and opal at Valparaiso. Whistler has never triumphed so completely.

But the influence of Monet is the most widespread. He, who has never exhibited, who does not exhibit now in the large shows, is here supreme. The open-air problems which he first sought to solve have become common property; the technical methods which he first employed assert themselves on every other canvas. Indeed, the two chief characteristics of this exhibition are the prevalence of *plein-air* experiments and the increasing tendency manifested to get one's effects by means of spots or points of color which fall into harmony when seen from the proper distance. It is curious, too, to note how the late popularity of pastels has in many cases exaggerated this tendency, painters seeking to produce in oils the effects peculiar to pastel. The results are anything but happy; Monet's method knows no half-way between success and failure, while the painter who borrows his technique from the pastellist becomes either niggling, or else liny like Raffaelli, in whose work undoubted cleverness is marred by no less undoubted affectation.

Of course it is among the landscapes that the new treatment of light and atmosphere, introduced by Monet, is most conspicuous. Cazin, whose eight pictures this year hardly would have gained him his great reputation, and Billotte, who sees in nature but grayness and soft mist, and Damoye, who already seems strangely old-fashioned, have not fallen under the spell. But their low-toned landscapes are overshadowed by the far more numerous studies of hot sunlight and brilliant outdoor effects. The disciples of Monet, in their degree of indebtedness to him, vary from slavish imitation to original interpretation. At one extreme is Sisley, who at the best is but a copyist; at the other, Edelfeldt, who, working out Monet's theories to suit his own artistic temperament, has evolved a very distinct and fine style of his own. His landscapes are the most wholly satisfactory of all exhibited this year. Refined in color and technique, strong in sunlight, bathed with air, they are absolutely true to nature in their record of outdoor impressions, absolutely true to art in the manner in which this record is made. Those who always look for the subject in a picture may be struck principally with the fact that his largest canvas represents, on a hillside overlooking a Norwegian fiord, Christ with a Magdalen in modern Norwegian dress at his feet. Those who care for beauty artistically expressed are concerned solely with the masterly way in which the two figures are given in their real relations to the landscape. Indeed, so little does the interest of his work depend upon human subjects, that the two smaller canvases, in which it is of the homeliest and most ordinary kind, are far more successful because of their artistic achievement.

Montenard, who has been painting in Provence, where, in rendering the sunlight that floods its olive orchards, its wide waters, its old amphitheatres, he has been less sensitive to the beauty of its color; Dumoulin, who has gone to Rome for his sunshine and to Paris at night for brilliancy of effect; Dauphin, Le Camus, Dinet, are other of the prominent men most obviously inspired by Monet. But perhaps no experimental working-out of his theories is as interesting as the two very large panels painted by Chabas to decorate the walls of the mairie at Montrouge. Here we have out-door effects treated on a large scale for the purpose of mural decoration. A wedding party, suggesting the famous scene in 'Jack,' and a picnic have been made the excuse for the study of a crowd in the open air. Seen too near, the atmosphere fairly sticks out of the frame, the violent purples and blues are disagreeably aggressive; at the proper distance, the atmospheric relations are just right, and the color scheme resolves itself into a pleasant harmony. The important question, which I hope Chabas has considered, is whether in the mairie one ever will be able to get to this proper distance; at the Champ de Mars you must go almost to the far side of the great stairway (the pictures hang in the balcony) to see the work as it should be seen.

It is curious to contrast this realistic, or one might say naturalistic, treatment with the conventional decorative methods of Puvis de Chavannes, who also shows a panel for the Paris Hôtel de Ville and two for the Museum in Rouen. Chabas has not yet Puvis's thorough command of his resources; he has plainly not passed beyond the experimental stage. But he at least proves that his scheme perfected will give greater scope for beauty of color and decorative feeling, and holds out the hope that from a new school of decoration may come some of the finest work the world has yet seen. However, Puvis de Chavannes has seldom shown to better advantage than in his large "Summer" for the Hôtel de Ville, where the great beauty of the landscape makes up for the figures, ugly in color and ungraceful in pose, in the foreground. There is a strange suggestion of Burne-Jones in the other panels; that is, in the drawing of the figures, but not in the color, which, as usual with this artist, is as pale and subdued as it is bright and almost crude with the English painter, nor in the handling, which is bold where Burne-Jones is niggling, nor in the whole effect, which can be appreciated at a reasonably remote distance which would reduce Burne-Jones to mere patchwork.

If in the landscapes the endeavor is to reproduce Nature herself, in the portraits the effort is to show real men and women in their natural environment, and not mere puppets set up against the invariable curtain or blank wall. There are men who, like Roll and Besnard, consider every portrait they paint a new problem of light and air, and who continually startle by the daring of their realism; there are those who, like Sargent (this year in his Mrs. St. Gaudens and her son, already seen in New York) and Boldini, are less concerned with atmospheric conditions, though these they do not ignore, than with strongly marked human characteristics; and again, there is an entirely original man, like Carrière, who sees everybody and everything according to a convention of his own, and yet in reproducing them on canvas shows them with striking force and actuality. He has in the present exhibition portraits of Alphonse Daudet and Paul Verlaine which are veritable masterpieces in their rendering of character. But when his mannerisms are copied, as they are by two or three of his imitators who also exhibit, then they degenerate into weaknesses, for his neutral color and all-pervading mist may be imitated, but not his individuality.

Though, at first, it is in the portraits that the greatest activity seems to be manifested, that one is most conscious of experiment, that the painter apparently has found freest scope, it does not take long to discover that here, as in the landscapes, there are two or three artists who lead, many who, with more or less cleverness, follow. Like Carrière, Besnard and Boldini have their students. Bes-

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ERRATA.

Page 12, col. i, line 26 from bottom. For "biographies" read "bibliographies." Line 30 from bottom, for "ten dollars" read "one dollar."

Page 35, col. iii, line 3 from bottom. For "1863" read "1864."

Page 65, col iii, line 9. For "two" read "four."

Page 66, col. ii, line 2 from bottom. For "1684" read "1664." Col. iii, line 17. For "25th" read "20th." Line 27. For "168–9" read "168–73."

Page 129, col. iii, line 17 from bottom. For "Radical" read "Conservative."

Page 138, col. i, line 12. For "W. G. Harris" read "W. T. Harris."

Page 243, col. iii, line 10. For "Chevenix" read "Chenevix."

Page 246, col. ii, line 22 from bottom. For "George William" read "William George."

Page 255, col. iii, line 16 from bottom. For "Eccleston" read "Eggleston."

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nard fortunate in being studied by a man of the ability and talent of Point, but Boldini less happy in being taken as master by men who can only exaggerate his eccentricities, reducing them to mere tricks, and who could no more paint flesh as he does, for example in the plump arm of a stout lady in evening dress (whose portrait, in its uncompromising truth, reaches the high-water mark of his accomplishment), than they could originate his skilfully managed color schemes. More independent in their methods are Picard, who is marvellously clever and effective; Friant, who has a capital little portrait of Ccquelin and his son, and another of a man and woman with their well-studied shadows thrown on the wall behind them; and Blanche, who, one feels, would do better if he did not do so much, for his portrait of his mother is as careful and as full of character as many of his other canvases are characterless and suggestive of over-haste. Two men, to whom one naturally turns for good work, each after his own fashion, Duez and Gervex, are disappointing. But even where one finds but failure, even where imitation is but ill concealed, there is a healthier tendency than in the copies of conventional models and the failures to work up to a conventional standard that cover the walls of the old Salon, or the middle-class mediocrities that adorn the Royal Academy. It seems as if it was to emphasize the healthiness of the new movement that Carolus-Duran has sent his work to the Champ de Mars Salon; for distinguished as are his portraits, especially those of Gounod and Billotte, they seem out of place and out of date, conventional and lifeless, compared to the canvases which surround them, while the strikingly weak portraits by Frappa and Miss Lee-Robbins are there to show to what depths of commonplace the conventional methods of a strong master may lead his faithful pupils.

Still more out of place in an exhibition so entirely artistic in its interest, and coming from a man so truly an artist, is Jean Béraud's "Christ in the House of Simon the Pharisee," which appeals only to claptrap sensationalism. The guests are all represented in frock coats and trousers, Magdalen in modern evening dress; but at the head of the table, set out with coffee-cups and littered with cigarette ashes, is the traditional Christ in draperies and halo. And the figures here are not subordinate to the artistic aims of the picture—to a study of light and air, as in Edelfeldt's "Magdalen"; it is the incongruity in costume, the suggested blasphemy, that attracts the crowd and has made this picture the pictorial excitement of the year in France, just as Luke Fildes's "Doctor," with its cheap sentiment, has achieved the same distinction in sentimental England. It is not easy to say whether Béraud has approached this work in the spirit of the old masters, whose religious themes did not necessitate archæological learning, or whether he produced it as a huge *fin de siècle* joke, useful to attract attention to his delightfully clever and artistic little "Café-Concert" and other paintings which hang around it.

It is difficult to write of the Champ de Mars Salon without degenerating into a mere catalogue of names, so many are the exhibitors whose work, for one reason or another, calls for special mention and cannot be classified with that of any school or movement in art. Dagnan-Bouveret stands quite alone, and his "Conscrits," though less stimulating than the canvases of a Boldini or a Besnard, is characterized not solely by the fine drawing and sound technique which have made his reputation, but by its excellent and sincere rendering of types. It is interesting to find that the one Englishman represented is Henry Moore, whose beautiful sunlit seas lose nothing by being seen in Paris. Among the Americans are Alexander Harrison, whose landscapes and marines are good but not extraordinary; Dannat, who suffers from being hung too close to Whistler, and from an unsuccessful effort to give certain strong color effects—strength with him approaching perilously near to violence; Melchers, and Miss Trotter. The only Germans of note are Uhde, with one simple, good study of a girl, and Liebermann, who, in his rich and quiet sunlit landscape, has more in common with the school of Barbizon than with the *plein-airistes*. The Norwegians are in greater numbers: to the most distinguished, Edelfeldt, I have already referred. Both Louis Deschamps and Lhermitte fall below their usual high average. Alfred Stevens is as prolific as of yore, and in some charming little sea studies shows that he, too, owes something to Monet. I must not overlook Gilbert's good realistic paintings of a railway station, destined, with so much of the good work of the year, to decorate the Hôtel de Ville. Ribot never was so powerful as in some wash drawings, which have all the richness and old-masterish feeling of his large oil paintings without their affectation.

For the first time in a yearly exhibition Vierge exhibits the remarkably brilliant originals of the engravings which constantly appear in *Le Monde Illustré*. While Le Père is fairly startling in the knowledge and ability he evinces in many mediums, in oils and water-colors, etchings and woodcuts, he succeeds equally well in giving expression to a strong individuality. Boldini and Carrier-Belleuse are again to the fore in pastel. And Rodin, who sends but one vigorous bust of Puvis de Chavannes, continues the most modern among sculptors; his influence, moreover, manifesting itself in much of the work, more particularly in some striking designs for a tomb by Bartholomé. Dampf's busts and Ringel's medallions in low relief are also prominent in the small and not too interesting collection of sculpture.

A small frame, draped in black and hung in the centre of one of the large rooms, really is the most significant feature of the show. It is a little water-color sketch, dated 1848, by Meissonier, much freer in treatment than the finished paintings he was used to exhibit. It is not his work, however, but rather his death, of which the crape is a reminder, that is so full of significance in the Salon in the Champ de Mars. Puvis de Chavannes, who has succeeded him as President, is stronger as a painter, but not as a leader of men. And rumor has it that already trouble is brewing in the Society over which he presides, that he will not be able long to hold it together, and that in two or three years' time many of its most accomplished members will return to the Champs-Élysées, where they will be received with open arms. How true this is, time alone can show.

N. N.

GENERAL MARBOT.—II.

PARIS, June 10, 1891.

I LEFT Marbot on the staff of Augereau in 1804. In the month of February he joined him in a journey to Paris, where Augereau had to have a conference with the First Consul on some project of a French landing in Ireland. They arrived at the time when the conspiracy of Pichegru, Moreau, and Cadoudal was discovered. Marbot says but little of the execution of the Duc d'Enghien, which was one of the consequences of this conspiracy.

"This execution was generally blamed. One might understand that if the Prince had been taken on French territory, the law should be applied to him, and in that case the law was capital punishment; but to go and seize him across the frontiers, in a foreign land, seemed a violation of the law of nations. It seemed, however, that the First Consul had no intention of executing the Prince, and only wished to frighten the royalist party which conspired his own death; but Gen. Savary, the chief of the gendarmerie, having gone to Vincennes, seized the Prince after judgment had been pronounced, and, by an excess of zeal, had him shot, in order, he said, to spare the First Consul the pain of ordering the execution of the Duc d'Enghien, or the danger of leaving alive such a dangerous enemy. Savary has since denied having said these words, but those who heard him have assured me that he did. It is certain that Bonaparte blamed Savary's haste; but, the fact once accomplished, he had to accept the consequences."

Marbot felt like the great majority of the French people; he forgot the execution of the Duc d'Enghien, and was delighted when Bonaparte was made Emperor by Senatorial decree of May 18, 1804. On this occasion, eighteen generals were made Marshals of France; the French army became, in a sense, Napoleon's army. The Legion of Honor was instituted, and this creation of a new order gave Napoleon the means of satisfying the bravest officers who had fought the campaigns of the Republic. Marbot tells the story of a soldier who had been in the Egyptian campaign, and had become a servant of M. de Narbonne. When M. de Narbonne heard that his servant had been decorated with the new order, he said to him, at the moment of sitting down at table: "It is not proper for a Knight of the Legion of Honor to hand plates, still less so to leave off his decoration to do my service; sit down by me; we are going to dine together, and to-morrow you shall go to my country place and be my gamekeeper, which is not incompatible with wearing your decoration." M. de Narbonne was an *émigré* who had been allowed to come back, and who afterwards entered the service of Napoleon.

At the camp of Boulogne Marbot was made a lieutenant, at the request of Marshal Augereau. Napoleon did not invade England, but turned his army towards the Rhine. Of this army Marbot says that life in camp had produced an excellent effect on it: "Never did France have a better instructed army, better composed, more anxious for battle and glory; and no general ever united so much power, so many material and moral forces, or used them more cleverly. Napoleon accepted war with joy, so certain was he of conquering his enemies and using their defeat for the solidification of his throne, as he knew the enthusiasm which glory has at all times excited in the chivalrous spirit of France." Marbot enters into many details on the campaign of 1805. He had himself important missions to fulfil as aide-de-camp.

"This year," he says, "opened for me a succession of combats which lasted ten consecutive years, since it only ended at Waterloo. However numerous were the wars of the Empire, nearly all French military men enjoyed one or several years of rest, . . . but, as you will see, it was not so with me, as I was always sent from north to south, from south to north, wherever there was fighting, so that I did not spend one of these ten years without being under fire and without losing blood in some one of the countries of Europe."

In the campaign of 1805 Augereau forced Jellachich to capitulate at Bregenz, and then continued his march towards the Danube. Marbot was chosen, with another officer, to carry the flags of Jellachich's corps to the

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Emperor, whom he joined at Brünn ten days before the battle of Austerlitz. He had, on this occasion, to play a part in a curious little comedy. Prussia was not yet at war with Napoleon, but there was a powerful party at Vienna which desired that Prussia should immediately unite her arms with those of Austria and Russia. The King, who hesitated, sent his Minister, Haugwitz, to the French headquarters. It has been said, with some truth, that ambassadors are privileged spies. The King of Prussia sent Haugwitz to Napoleon, apparently with the simple mission of bringing him a letter in answer to one which Napoleon had sent to him, and in which he complained of the treaty that had been made at Potsdam between Prussia and Russia; but in reality in order to inform himself exactly of the situation of the belligerents. Haugwitz arrived a few days before the battle of Austerlitz, and Napoleon wanted to make a strong impression on his mind. The flags of Jellachich's corps had already been presented to the Emperor, but Napoleon wished the ceremony to be repeated. He was talking with Haugwitz when the sound of martial music was heard.

"The Emperor, hearing this music in the palace court, feigned astonishment, went to the window, followed by the ambassador, and, seeing the trophies carried by non-commissioned officers, he called for the aide-de-camp on duty, and asked him what was the matter. The aide having answered that the two aides of Marshal Augereau had arrived, bringing to the Emperor the flags of the Austrian Corps of Jellachich, taken at Bregenz, we entered, and then, as if he had not seen us, Napoleon received Marshal Augereau's letter, which had been resealed, and read it, though he had known its contents for four days. Then he asked us questions and entered into the most minute details. Duroc had told us that it was necessary to speak loud, as the Prussian ambassador was a little deaf."

Marbot spoke, presented the flags, named the regiments. He made a great impression when he showed the flag of the infantry regiment of the Emperor of Austria, and the flag of the Uhlans of his brother, the Archduke Charles. "You see, sir," said Napoleon to Haugwitz, "my armies are triumphant everywhere; . . . the Austrian Army is annihilated, and it will soon be the same with the Russian Army." The comedy played, Napoleon told Haugwitz that the position was not very safe for a diplomat, and advised him to go to Vienna, where he would see Talleyrand. Haugwitz left the same evening. This curious episode shows a side of Napoleon's character which is not without interest—that side which the Pope at Savona is said to have clearly noticed, when to all the speeches of Napoleon he answered merely first, as if speaking to himself, "Comediante—tragediante."

The account of the battle of Austerlitz is extremely interesting, but we will note only an incident which concerns Marbot personally. It is well known that the French artillery fired on the ice of some ponds which were thronged by the Russians, and that many Russians were thus drowned upon the breaking of the ice. After the battle was over, Napoleon saw a poor Russian non-commissioned officer on a piece of ice on the point of being drowned. Marbot, under the eyes of the Emperor, took off his uniform, threw himself into the water, and with great difficulty saved the Russian at the risk of his own life. Marbot is very candid; he says: "I will not make myself out better than I am; I must confess that, having witnessed a battle where I had seen thousands of dead and wounded, my sensibility was blunted, and I was not philanthropic enough to run the risk of congestion of the lungs in disputing with the ice the life of an enemy"; but the Emperor was looking on, and had said to the soldiers around him, "Try and save this man," and he tried.

The battle of Austerlitz was followed by an interview between the Emperors of France and of Austria, "a spectacle well calculated to inspire philosophical reflections. An Emperor of Germany coming humbly to solicit peace from a little Corsican gentleman, an ex-officer of artillery, whom his talents, fortunate circumstances, and the courage of the French armies had made the arbiter of the destiny of Europe." After Austerlitz came Jena. Before this new campaign, Marbot spent some time in Darmstadt. He had two missions to fulfil, and carried despatches from Germany to Paris, from Paris to Berlin. Marbot explains the defeat of the Prussian Army by its composition and organization. All the captains were, so to speak, proprietors of their companies; they enrolled all the vagrants of Germany. The soldiers were ill-fed, ill-clothed, and subjected to an iron discipline; they had no patriotism; the officers were poor gentlemen, and promotion was given only by seniority; the generals were too old, and not able to bear the fatigue of a campaign. The memory of the great Frederic gave to the Prussian Army a sort of prestige; but it had no chance, as the event proved, against the conquerors of Italy, of Egypt, of Germany, and of Austerlitz.

The victory at Jena had immense results. To the conquests made in Prussia, Napoleon added the States of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel. The Elector had a great treasury, and was one of the wealthiest capitalists in Europe. He took refuge in England, and confided fifteen millions of francs to a Frankfort Jew named Rothschild. This is the origin of the wealth of the famous house of that name. In vain did an Imperial Commission threaten Rothschild, examine his books, offer him half the sum if he would give up the other half. The deposit remained safe in his hands till 1814.

After Jena, Napoleon entered Poland. He had hoped to reconstitute the ancient kingdom, but the Poles did not stir. Kosciuszko, who was living quietly in Switzerland, refused to come and join the French. Napoleon crossed the Vistula and fought the battle of Eylau. In this terrible battle Marbot had to carry an order to a French regiment standing by itself on a small eminence. This regiment, the Fourteenth, was surrounded by Cossacks, and it was almost certain death to carry the order. Marbot had an excellent horse, which he had bought for a trifle because it had the dangerous habit of biting. Trusting to Lisette, he spurred her, and let her go; lighter than the wind she flew over the battle-field, and nothing could stop her. Marbot arrived at the square formed by the Fourteenth of the line, and delivered to the colonel the order to leave his position and join the corps. The officer in command told him that he saw no means of saving the regiment; he gave him the eagle of the regiment, and bade him carry it to the Emperor. These eagles, which were fixed at the end of the flag, were very heavy; at the moment when Marbot was breaking the staff, so as to keep only the eagle, the Russians advanced and made a charge. Marbot saw the grenadiers coming; at that very instant a bullet struck his hat, and came so near his head that the concussion paralyzed him; he still saw, but could not move. He was on Lisette, a grenadier was upon him and he could not defend himself. Lisette jumped at the Russian and bit him fearfully in the face; Marbot then became insensible. He only came to his senses in the night, when he found himself naked, and a man, with one foot on him, trying to take off one of his boots. His movements scared this man, who had thought him dead. Soon afterwards, his valet, who was looking for him on the battle-field, found him. He was saved; Lisette also was saved. They were both well taken care of. Marbot was sent to the hospital—his foot had been frozen during the night which followed Eylau—but he soon recovered, and was able to rejoin the army in time to assist at the battle of Friedland. And here ends this extraordinary book, which will be read with as much interest as the most sensational novel.

Correspondence.

MR. BANDELIER AND THE SOUTH-WESTERN LAND COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Bandelier, whose article in your issue of May 28 last has attracted a good deal of attention in the West, enjoys so excellent a reputation as an archæologist and enthnologist that, were he to write upon subjects with which his studies have made him familiar, it would require considerable assurance in one not thoroughly informed upon them to question the correctness of his views. But when he attempts to instruct the public in general and the Supreme Court of the United States in particular upon matters of law, even one unlearned in the intricacies of Tehua and Nahuatl may possibly be pardoned for concluding that Mr. Bandelier is not so erudite in legal matters as he would like to make us believe by his ingenious references to the obscure ordinances and royal decrees of past centuries, which have little or nothing to do with the question of the settlement of land titles in the Southwest.

The question is one of law and not of sentiment; one requiring a knowledge of legal methods rather than familiarity with the topography of the country in which the claims to be adjudicated are situated, or an acquaintance with the customs of the people. The courts of the United States have upon many occasions decided questions requiring quite as much erudition as any that will be presented to the new Land Court. Hundreds of private land claims, having their origin under other governments than ours, have been presented to the tribunals established for their adjudication, and no difficulty has been encountered in finding persons perfectly competent to fulfil the duties usually required of judges. Why such persons may not be found now for the Southwestern Land Court one may well be at a loss to understand.

The provision of the act that appears to have excited Mr. Bandelier's powers of ridicule in the highest degree is that excluding citizens of the Territories from becoming members of the court. This, he says, "secures absolute theoretic impartiality." Why does he hesitate to tell the truth? The provision in question secures also practical impartiality. Mr. Bandelier has lived in the Southwest for years, and knows, or certainly ought to know, that there are very few if any attorneys in that region, whose legal acquirements fit them for the position of judges who are not so bound by political, social, and personal ties to many of the claimants of these land grants as to make their appointment as members of the court extremely improper. Judges are needed who have no political ambitions in regard to positions of honor within the gift of the Territories, who have had no

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business relations with their prominent attorneys and wealthy citizens, and who have no interest in perpetuating in power and in the enjoyment of immense tracts of the public domain the dynasty of old and wealthy families which has so long ruled the Spanish-speaking portion of the Southwest. The necessity of the appointment of such men was foreseen by the gentlemen who framed the Land Court Bill, and was wisely provided for.

Mr. Bandelier informs us that some of the titles conveyed absolute dominion, others were usufructs only, while others included both. This is very remarkable indeed, but may we not be justified in believing that the judges will be quite as competent to decide as to the nature of the titles presented to them as is the learned gentleman who appears to be so alarmed at the probability of the appointment of impartial and competent men? There is no good reason for believing that injustice will be done claimants who have good titles, although Mr. Bandelier appears to anticipate that such will be the case. An examination of the cases filed with the Surveyors-General of New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado, under the act of 1854, will convince the most sceptical that the attitude of the Government officials towards grant claimants has been more than generous. The confirmation of many claims by Congress has been even hasty, and sometimes absolutely careless, resulting in the loss to the Government of many thousands of acres of valuable land to which claimants had little or no right. Take, for example, the notorious Maxwell grant, confirmed and patented for nearly two millions of acres; the Ortiz Mine grant, patented for over sixty-nine thousand acres of valuable mineral land, without the slightest proof that an absolute title had ever vested in the original grantees to the extent of a single foot of the land now held under the patent of the United States. These two cases are no more outrageous in their nature than numbers of others that might be mentioned, notwithstanding that in the case of the Maxwell grant the area patented by the United States is equivalent to about four hundred square leagues, while the original grantees stated in reply to an inquiry by the Mexican officials that the land for which they petitioned did not exceed fifteen or eighteen leagues.

Still, in the face of these facts, Mr. Bandelier appears to be extremely apprehensive that great injustice may be suffered by grant claimants at the hands of the inexperienced judges who are to be appointed from the effete East. He seems to ignore the fact that the United States has some interest in the matter, and has a right to protect that interest by such legislation as it may deem proper. There is no other way in which the lands belonging to the public domain may be known than by clearly defining the limits of those private land claims which, under its treaty obligations, the Government is bound to respect; but let it not be forgotten that those obligations are not of such a character as to prevent the Government from prescribing the mode of deciding the validity or invalidity of these claims, or of limiting the period within which they must be presented to the proper tribunals in order to obtain recognition. Even a title that was perfect at the time of the change of sovereignty may be declared to be without validity if the claimants fail to observe the formalities prescribed by the Government for its adjudication.

P. T.

Denver, Col., June 8, 1891.

THE PUNISHMENT OF DRUNKENNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The act relating to the punishment of drunkenness recently passed by the Massachusetts Legislature deals with a subject of such importance, and is such a wide departure from the existing methods of dealing with it, that an abstract of its provisions may be of interest to your readers.

Arrests for drunkenness generally outnumber those made for all other offences. In Massachusetts, in 1890, they constituted over 65 per cent. of all arrests. Our law is peculiar in making simple drunkenness in a public place an offence for which an arrest can be made without a warrant. Elsewhere, some degree of disorder must accompany public intoxication before the arrest can be made. But our law is right in this: for the sake of public decency, and for the protection of the intoxicated man himself, the power to shut him up until he is sober should exist. How best to deal with him after he becomes sober, so as to protect the public interests, and yet to punish or to help him, is the difficult problem. Imposing a petty fine as the penalty for drunkenness does not solve this problem, and yet it is the solution heretofore accepted here, and generally accepted elsewhere. A fine does not deter. Men don't count the money cost of a spree. If the offender has the money, the fine is no punishment; if he hasn't it—which is the usual case—a distracted wife or mother must pay, which punishes the innocent who are already suffering enough. Again, the fine to be effective must be enforced by the penalty of imprisonment. This imprisonment is not for drunkenness, nor is it graduated with reference to the man's previous record for good or bad behavior, but is a uniform imprisonment of thirty days for not having five dollars, imposed on the poor man who may least deserve the disgrace and loss which it entails, while the well-to-do offender goes free.

There are distinctions in our law between first and frequent offenders, and larger fines and terms of imprisonment may be imposed if previous offences are alleged in the complaint and proved. But, in practice, complaints are made by arresting officers, who either know nothing of the man's previous record, or, knowing it, have neither the time, inclination, nor evidence to prove it. In Massachusetts last year, 23,575 out of the 25,582 persons arrested for drunkenness and committed, were imprisoned for non-payment of fines. We find, in consequence, hundreds of men each year returning tens and scores of times to our prisons for non-payment of fines, and we find further, what is worse, many committed by this wholesale system who really are first offenders, and never should be imprisoned, whose future is marred and often ruined by the loss of place and character and by the criminal contamination which imprisonment has brought upon them.

To do away with the fine system, and to substitute a method which should deal with persons arrested for drunkenness as individuals, and not in the mass, and which should give the courts the help needed for this just discrimination, has been the aim of the Massachusetts Prison Association in preparing and urging the passage of the bill which has just become a law.

This law does away with the distinction between "first," "second," and "third" offences. Every conviction for drunkenness may be punished by imprisonment, within the discretion of the court, of from one day to one year in jail, or to an indeterminate sentence, not exceeding two years, in the reformatory. To enable the courts to exercise this discretion intelligently, the bill imposes upon probation officers the duty of investigating and reporting to the court the record of each offender, and provides for a system of records in the courts and a compulsory interchange of information between the probation officers and the police and the officers of correctional institutions, which will greatly facilitate the investigation.

By a bill also passed this session, the appointment of probation officers by the judges in every criminal court of the Commonwealth is made mandatory. These officers, chosen by the judges, and having their confidence, will form a corps of intelligent assistants, who, with a few months' experience, will be of invaluable service in providing the courts with the evidence necessary for a discriminating and just disposition of these offenders.

The new law will assist and relieve the courts in another way. A large number of those arrested for drunkenness are not frequent offenders or habitual drunkards. Under some special temptation or stress of circumstances, they take too much. This may happen a few times in the course of a lifetime, or once or twice a year, while at other times they are sober, industrious men, the bread-winners of their families. To such men imprisonment is a disgrace, a loss of place, a possible discouragement leading to confirmed drunkenness. For them to be immediately returned to their work is the best thing possible. To take up the time of the courts with their trial, to incur the expense of their committal and their board and lodging for thirty days in order to collect a fine of $5, or its equivalent, and then not to get it, is for the State worse than foolish. To meet such cases the bill provides that any person arrested for drunkenness may request to sign a statement, giving his name and address, and alleging that he has not been arrested for drunkenness twice before within the twelve months next preceding. If the officer in charge of the place of custody, not the arresting officer, endorses on this statement that he is satisfied that it is probably true, he *may* release the arrested person, pending an investigation of the truth of the statement by the probation officer. If that investigation shows the statement to be true, nothing further is done; if untrue, it becomes the duty of the arresting officer to take the man again into custody and complain of him for drunkenness.

The power of release, always a dangerous power in the hands of the police, is here guarded by giving it only to the commanding officer of the station, by requiring his signature to the probable truth of the statement, and by making it a conditional release only. And yet the thing desired—the prompt release of persons who should not be forced into the dock with old offenders and further disgraced by trial and commitment—is obtained. If the arrested man is not released, he is complained of and tried. After conviction his case may be placed on filé or probation if the court finds him deserving of this further chance.

Under this new law, while it will be easier to save from the disgrace of trial and imprisonment the occasional offender who should not be branded as a criminal, it will also be easier to find out and adequately punish the "rounders," and those who, though seldom arrested, are, through drink, a terror to their families. Longer terms of imprisonment for them will protect the public if they are incorrigible, or will give them a chance for reform if reform is possible.

This law is believed to be thoroughly practi-

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cal. It was drafted after most careful deliberation and consultation with many of our judges, officers of penal institutions, commissioners of police and public institutions, and persons who, in the various philanthropic and charitable institutions of Boston and elsewhere, have come much in contact with the evils of the present system. These evils exist elsewhere. We hope that the success of our experiment will lead to similar legislation in other States. J. G. THORP, JR.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 13, 1891.

Notes.

D. C. HEATH & Co. have in press an 'Introduction to Modern French Lyrics,' by Prof. B. L. Bowen of Ohio State University.

Mrs. Sara E. H. Lockwood has revised for younger pupils Prof. Whitney's 'Essentials of English Grammar,' which Ginn & Co. will publish during the present season.

Worthington & Co. announce 'Columbia,' a story of the discovery of America, and first of a series of American historical novels, by John R. Musick.

A collection of short stories by George A. Hibbard will presently be brought out by Harper & Bros. under the title, 'Iduna, and Other Stories.'

The new London publishing house of James R. Osgood, McIlvaine & Co. is apparently going to make a specialty of introducing American short-story writers to the British public. It has published already Miss Wilkins's 'New England Nun,' Miss Jewett's 'Strangers and Wayfarers,' Mr. Eugene Field's 'Little Book of Profitable Tales,' Mr. R. H. Davis's 'Gallegher,' and Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's 'Balaam and his Master,' and it has in preparation collected stories by Mr. Thomas A. Janvier, Miss M. L. Pool, and others.

The Clarendon Press, Oxford, will shortly publish a new edition of the late Sir George Cornewall Lewis's 'Government of Dependencies,' which will be edited by Mr. C. P. Lucas, B.A., of Balliol College, Oxford, and of the Colonial Office, London. Mr. Lucas is the author of the three volumes as yet published of the 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies,' which also is being issued from the Clarendon Press. For this admirable series the author is now preparing a volume upon the North American portion of the British Empire, while his colleague, Mr. Antrobus, of the Colonial Office, is at work upon the West and South African Colonies, to be treated of in one volume. The Australasian Colonies will form the subject of a subsequent book.

In his contributions to the 'History of the Southwestern Portion of the United States' (Cambridge: John Wilson & Son), Mr. A. F. Bandelier gives us the first of what he hopes may be a series of monographs on a subject which he has so extensively studied—the early Spanish explorations and the native civilization of their time. In the present volume, published at the joint expense of the Archæological Institute of America and of Mrs. Mary Hemenway, the principal papers are on the wanderings of Cabeza de Vaca and the expedition of Fray Marcos of Nizza. On all sides appears the extent of the author's resources, not the least notable among them being the light he is able to throw upon ancient obscurities from his own personal travels and residence among the Indians. One is left with a feeling as of outrage that such a scholar cannot enjoy access to the archives of Spain, where, he feels sure, the clearing up of so many mysteries would result from his investigations.

A second edition, enlarged and revised, of the 'Handbook of the American Republics' is issued by the Bureau of the American Republics at Washington. Some of the rather pompous Pan-Americanisms of the first edition are cut out, and some valuable additions appear. The proposals for the "Columbus exhibit" at the Chicago fair have an unconscious humor which only a Harrisse or a Winsor could fully appreciate. The volume contains a great deal of information compactly arranged and well printed.

'A Ride through Asia Minor and Armenia,' by H. C. Barkley (London: J. Murray), gives an extremely vivid idea of the condition of this part of the Turkish Empire shortly after the close of the Russian war—a condition probably unchanged in its essential particulars to-day. The author's route was from Brusa to Angora, and thence to Kaisarieh through the Cilician Gates to Adana. Turning here to the northeast, he crossed the plains of Mesopotamia to the headwaters of the Euphrates and Tigris, reaching the Black Sea at Trebizond. The universal impression received was of a country rich in agricultural and mineral resources, but ruined by corrupt officials, lack of enterprise, and by the insecurity of life and property. In all parts, however, Mr. Barkley found among both the Turks and the Armenians a confident expectation of the speedy coming of the English to "govern them properly." With this change of rulers their troubles would cease and the land would again become rich and prosperous. Drunkenness among the Turks, he says, is greatly on the increase. "Few of the upper class abstain, and many make it a rule to go to bed drunk every night." The Armenians also impressed him unfavorably as a cringing, slavish race, who are satisfied with a mere veneer of civilization. Of the Tartars, on the other hand, he says they are "the most helpful and the most capable of improvement of all the races—in fact, the only one with energy, brains, and ambition." The work of American missionaries is frequently referred to in the highest terms—more, however, for the patience, courage, and devotion with which it is prosecuted than for its success.

Damrell & Upham, Boston, publish in pamphlet form an address recently given by Mr. Edward Atkinson to the Cotton Manufacturers' Association upon the subject of food and feeding as bearing upon the productive power of laborers. Mr. Atkinson has no difficulty in showing that the daily waste of food and fuel in every household, when multiplied by the number of households in the country, amounts to a very large total, and he reasons that the intelligence displayed in the feeding of cattle might profitably be applied to the scientific nourishment of human beings, and that if human beings were better nourished they would do more and better work. His figures indicate from twelve to twenty cents a day as the cost of sufficient nutriment for most people who are working or exercising. The subject deserves the attention of philanthropists.

Mr. Angelo Lewis, the "Prof. Hoffman" who has translated Robert Houdin's treatise on conjuring, and who has himself written the best books on modern magic, has now put forth a little volume about 'Baccarat, Fair and Foul, being an Explanation of the Game and a Warning against its Dangers' (George Routledge & Sons). He first explains the game, which is an easy matter, as it is of surpassing simplicity, and fitted rather for the playing of Digger Indians than of persons knowing how to read and write. Of all card games it is nearest to absolute chance, and calls for the least exercise of the intelligence. This may explain why it serves to amuse the upper circles of British "society"; but we are at a loss to understand its abiding popularity among an intelligent people like the French. Having explained the procedure of the game, Mr. Lewis sets forth at length the many possibilities of cheating, from the simple *poucette* (which Sir William Gordon-Cumming was accused of practising) to the more elaborate devices of confederacy, of marked cards, and of arranged packs. He draws on the books of Robert Houdin and of Alfred de Caston, and more particularly on the 'Filouteries du Jeu' of Cavaillé. His explanation of the methods of card-sharpers is as interesting as it is instructive.

M. Henri Bouchot follows up his 'Livres Modernes' and his 'Ex-Libris' with 'La Reliure' (Paris: E. Rouveyre). It is a well-reasoned discourse on the proprieties of bookbinding, beginning with an historical review of the modes which have prevailed during the present century. In none of these does M. Bouchot find anything but flat imitation of "tous les styles défunts," and his main object is to foster originality which shall mark the present time and restore personal inspiration to the binder himself. He does this with the aid of photographic illustrations from recent bindings which are out of the beaten path, and of which he frankly acknowledges the inequality of merit, since we are in the groping and experimental stage. His leading principle is that the design and treatment and material should be inspired by the work itself, and should have relation to the contents as the *Leit-Motiv* to the action of the operatic drama. This produces what he calls a "reliure à l'emblème," with possibilities of infinite variety. He marks the recent craze for decorating the inside of the cover, on which Grolier never bestowed a thought, and he discusses the proper stuffs for such use, as to which much false taste has been displayed. This little manual is quickly read and is certain to inculcate sound ideas.

The necrology of the alumni of Andover Theological Seminary for 1890-'91, prepared by the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, Secretary of the Alumni Association, is an astonishing record. The average age of the forty-six decedents is seventy-six years, eight months, and ten days! Two men were over ninety, nineteen were over eighty, fourteen over seventy, eight over sixty, two over fifty, and only one under that age. It is noteworthy that of the three who died under sixty, two were not college graduates, one having been a carpenter before entering the Seminary and the other having been engaged in business, while the third gave up the ministerial calling for other pursuits. The wisdom of the life-insurance companies in advertising in the religious newspapers is evidently justified by the event.

The 'Century Dictionary,' so far as concerns its first volume, is the subject of somewhat minute comment in the latest issue of *Englische Studien*. Upwards of ten pages are there accorded to it, under various aspects, by the Rev. A. L. Mayhew, an Oxford philologist of high and deserved repute for extensive research and scientific thoroughness. "There is plenty of room," the critic admits, "for an English dictionary written by American scholars, and intended especially for the use of the American public. . . . And besides, when scholars in England consider how wide is the subject of English lexicography, and how it bristles with difficulties, they are ready to give a hearty welcome to any scholars, coming from any quarter, who promise to add to

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our knowledge, and to help us in clearing up some of the many doubtful points which have long waited for solution." But the 'Century Dictionary' falls short, on several grounds, of commending itself to its censor's unqualified approval—as respects its adduction of authorities in exemplification of words, its comparative philology, etc.

In *Mélusine* for May–June, M. H. Gaidoz reviews with cordial approval Prof. T. F. Crane's 'The Exempla of Jacques de Vitry,' and supplies the curious information that "the tradition of the *exempla* is not yet extinct in Catholic countries," even the very name being preserved. Thus, the Société de Saint Augustin has just published 'Les Sept Douleurs de la Sainte Vierge,' in which each of the seven chapters ends with an anecdote entitled "Exemple," and one of the *exemples* begins with these words: "Hérolt relates." Hérolt was a Dominican of Bâle and a collector of *exempla* in the first half of the 15th century. M. Gaidoz cites also the 'Mois de Marie en Exemples.'

In the *Harvard Law Review* for May, Prof. J. B. Thayer has an instructive study of the older modes of trial in England, from which a tolerably clear idea may be obtained of the development of "one-sided" proof into the scientific procedure of modern times. Attention is especially directed to the institution of complaint-witnesses, as essential to the determination of the right to go to the proof—an institution often confounded with that of proof-witnesses.

The Artotype Publishing Co., No. 94 Reade Street, New York, have in preparation a monthly publication to be entitled *Dogs of the Day*, edited by H. W. Lacy. The first series will comprise twelve monthly parts, each part containing four portraits of as many breeds. Typical specimens will be selected for this curious gallery. The photographic illustrations are, of course, from life, and permanently printed in ink. Each portrait will be described. The work will be sold by subscription.

We have received the announcement of a new journal entitled *Indogermanische Forschungen*, to be published, beginning with July next, by Trübner of Strassburg, under the editorial direction of Prof. Brugmann of Leipzig and Prof. Wilhelm Streitberg of Freiburg (Switzerland). It will appear in volumes of five numbers each, without limitation of period. In the second and fifth numbers of each volume will be added a bibliographical review, or *Anzeiger*, with separate pagination. The subscription price per volume, including the *Anzeiger*, is sixteen marks. The names of the editors guarantee the importance of this new enterprise, which, though it seems to owe its existence in some measure to the personal prejudice and sectarian exclusiveness of the editors of the two existing journals in this field, proposes to avoid every appearance of partisanship and to exclude rigidly from its columns all sectarian controversy and personal polemics. For this resolution it deserves a place in our prayers.

The generous Catalogue of the Officers and Members of the Harvard Law School Association, which bears date of April 1, 1891, must inspire every member of that large body with a feeling of pride in so vigorous and rapid a growth. It embraces graduates as far back as 1825, and men of the Law School class which graduates this week, and the total is 1,615. Massachusetts and New York together furnish rather more than half, and in no other State does the membership equal 100, though Ohio, Illinois, and Pennsylvania approach that figure. The arrangement, precision, fulness, and typographical elegance of this volume leave nothing to be desired. Two views, of the old and the new home of the School, adorn it.

—We have received Nos. 2 and 3 of Volume XIII. of the *American Journal of Mathematics*. No. 2 contains an unusually large number of papers, two of the nine being in French—one by M. d'Ocagne, the other by M. Appell, both of whom are known to readers of the *Journal* by previous contributions to which the present ones are supplementary. Dr. Oskar Bolza continues his series on the "Theory of Substitution-Groups." In fact, five of the articles are more or less intimately connected with previous ones, while the remainder are short and complete in themselves. No. 3 contains only two papers. The first is a "Third Memoir on a New Theory of Symmetric Functions," by Maj. P. A. MacMahon, R.A. This memoir by no means completes the exposition of the writer's theory, but both at the beginning and end he indicates his intention to resume the subject at some future period. The series was commenced by Capt. MacMahon, and continued by Maj. MacMahon; unless his prospects for speedy promotion are very bright, we hope he will not wait for Col. MacMahon to finish it. The other paper in No. 3 is in French, by M. Joseph Perott. It is curiously entitled "Remarque au sujet du théorème d'Euclide sur l'infinité du nombre des nombres premiers," which might lead the reader to expect a brief note calling attention to some point of interest in connection with Euclid's theorem. But the "remark" is one of the most elaborate and profound dissertations that have appeared in the *Journal*. M. Perott began it more than two years ago, in the *Journal* for January, 1889, where it occupied forty pages. He now gives us fifty-four pages more, to be continued, perhaps concluded, in a future number. Up to the present time M. Perott has made no reference to Euclid's theorem in the text of his "remark." Every year one, and sometimes three or four, new editions of the first six, and parts of the eleventh and twelfth, books of Euclid's 'Elements' are put upon the English market, but translations of the other books are very rare in private libraries and are frequently wanting in college libraries. As almost everything connected with the history of mathematics is completely ignored in most of our American colleges, a large majority of graduates are ignorant of the fact that the seventh, eighth, and ninth books of Euclid's 'Elements' do not relate to geometry at all, but are devoted exclusively to arithmetic. These books are seldom read, many professors of mathematics never having looked at them. In case this note should fall under the eye of some one desirous of reading M. Perott's paper and of seeing beforehand exactly what Euclid says in his theorem and its demonstration, we may save him some trouble by informing him that the theorem referred to in the title of M. Perott's "remark" is the twentieth proposition of the ninth book. He will find that Euclid does not say in so many words that the number of primes is infinite, but that however far the collection of primes is carried there are always more, which is equivalent to saying that the number is unlimited.

—The most significant novelties in the new Announcement of Courses of Instruction at Harvard for the next academic year—the so-called "Elective Pamphlet"—are found on its last pages in the addition of summer courses that may be counted for degrees and of courses for teachers. Both of these bear in an interesting way on the recent discussion about shortening the college course. The summer courses have been carried on for several years past, but have only this year been regularly listed as leading to the degree of A.B. or S.B. They include German, engineering, physics, botany, and geology. Geology and engineering gain from summer instruction, by reason of the opportunity then allowed for continuous work; physics and botany stand less in need of this aid, but still profit by it. The interruption of one course by another during the college term is here entirely avoided, as only one subject can be taken at a time. Courses in chemistry are also given in the summer, and have for some years been more largely attended than any other of the summer courses; but, for some reason not stated, they are not yet included among those that may be counted for the degrees. Five or six weeks is the minimum of attendance for these courses, and, if followed by a satisfactory examination, the work may count as an eighth of a college year's requirement, thus enabling the more energetic students to curtail their course by a small amount. When the summer courses are more largely elected, they will afford valuable means of comparing the results of continuous study with the discontinuous study of term-time. All the summer courses are open to others than members of the University.

—The courses for teachers constitute the most considerable departure from college traditions that we notice this year. They are doubtless the outcome of an effort made a year or more ago in Boston by some of the public-school teachers towards the establishment of a State Normal College, in which college graduates should find means of learning how to apply their knowledge to the art of teaching. Whether such a college is to be established or not, Harvard intends to offer what it can to the same end, and for this purpose has appointed a new professor, Dr. Paul Hanus, to deliver lectures on the history, theory, and art of teaching, and has at the same time arranged that eighteen of its regular professors shall give special courses on methods of elementary instruction in thirteen subjects, all of which are taught in the high schools. It is the intention to limit membership in these courses to graduates of colleges, and to others of experience and training, in order to supply the growing demand for teachers of better quality than can be found among the graduates of the normal schools, or among college graduates who have had no instruction in the methods of teaching. As this movement makes itself felt, one of the points most strongly emphasized in the recent report of the Harvard Overseers against the shortening of the college course will be gained, namely, an improvement in the teaching in the secondary schools and a better preparation for college work by those who come to college, including, perhaps, a shortening of the time given to the preparatory schools. With better preparation, with permission to count advanced studies at entrance, to use summer work towards the degree, and to take a certain number of additional courses every college year, it will be perfectly possible for good students to gain their degree in three years, and this without any degradation of the degree itself.

—The death, on the 2d of June, is announced of Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood in London, at the ripe age of eighty-eight. Of half a-dozen books, or more, which he produced, the only one which has attracted any considerable attention is his fantastic 'Dictionary of English Etymology'; and this, strange to say, has reached a second edition. Its author can hard-

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ly have been surpassed for the intrepid quixotism with which, mounted on his hobby, onomatopœia, he perseveringly tilted against all rational methods of accounting for the origin of speech. As, however, he was a man of learning, and explored far and wide in quest of facts that seemed to lend color to his chimera, he has served the interests of philology, monomaniac as he was, by accumulating a huge mass of materials which etymological investigators are thankful to be spared the trouble of searching out themselves.

BROWNING'S LIFE AND LETTERS.—II.

Life and Letters of Robert Browning. By Mrs. Sutherland Orr. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

THE letters of Mrs. Browning are the principal source of what is told us about their life. She wrote much better letters than her husband, and he has taken pains to destroy as much of the personal records of his past as he could. She, therefore, becomes the central figure in these chapters—the real personality. She writes with great spirit, and describes both nature and human life very well. Many passages could be selected without fear of wearying the reader. The short bits of Italian scenery in the Apennines are admirable in feeling and poetical (in Mrs. Browning's taste) in diction; and the sense of physical enjoyment and of adventure she shows in her own share in the riding and climbing, after a fashion she never dreamed of, is very keenly felt. The episode of her meeting with George Sand, in Paris, is one that cannot be omitted. The great Frenchwoman was then invisible to every one, but Mrs. Browning wrote to her and she replied with an invitation to call. Mr. Browning himself was reluctant to undertake the affair: "I pricked Robert up to the leap—for he was really inclined to sit in his chair and be proud a little. 'No,' said I, 'you *shan't* be proud, and I *won't* be proud, and we *will* see her. I won't die, if I can help it, without seeing George Sand.'" So they went. "She received us very cordially with her hand held out, which I, in the emotion of the moment, stooped and kissed, upon which she exclaimed: 'Mais non! je ne veux pas,' and kissed me." Then follows an excellent description of her appearance and manner and the scene. They saw her more than once. This is the final impression:

"She has great nicety and refinement in her personal ways, I think, and the cigarette is really a feminine weapon if properly understood. Ah, but I didn't see her smoke. I was unfortunate. I could only go with Robert three times to her house, and once she was out. He was really very good and kind to let me go at all after he found out the sort of society rampant about her. He didn't like it extremely, but, being the best of husbands, he was lenient to my desires and yielded the point. She seems to live in the abomination of desolation, so far as regards society—crowds of ill-bred men who adore her, *à genoux bas*, betwixt a puff of smoke and an ejection of saliva—society of the ragged red diluted with the low theatrical. She herself so different, so apart, so alone, in her melancholy disdain. I was deeply interested in that poor woman; I felt a profound compassion for her. I didn't mind much even the Greek in Greek costume who *tutoyéd* her—and kissed her, I believe, so Robert said—or the other vulgar man of the theatre who went down on his knees and called her '*sublime*.' '*Caprice d'amitié*,' said she with her quiet, gentle scorn. A noble woman under the mud, be certain. *I* would kneel down to her, too, if she would leave it all, throw it off, and be herself as God made her. But she would not care for my kneeling; she does not care for me."

Another passage, which shows Mrs. Browning in surroundings in which she is seldom, if ever, thought of, is the description of the masked ball of the carnival:

"Very much amused I was. I like to see these characteristic things. (I shall never rest, Sarianna, till I risk my reputation at the *bal de l'Opéra* at Paris.) Do you think I was satisfied with staying in the box? No, indeed. Down I went, and Robert and I elbowed our way through the crowd to the remotest corner of the hall below. Somebody smote me on the shoulder and cried, '*Bella Mascherina!*' and I answered as impudently as one feels under a mask. At two o'clock in the morning, however, I had to give up and come away."

The mention of the journey which Carlyle took with them to Paris has one or two fine touches—his amusement with "Pen," their boy, whom they feared would annoy him, and Mrs. Browning's remark, "You come to understand perfectly, when you know him, that his bitterness is only melancholy, and his scorn, sensibility." On this visit Carlyle glanced at a figure of Christ crucified and said, in his "deliberate Scotch utterance: 'Ah, poor fellow, *your* part is played out.'"

Interesting as these letters are, they must be left without further quotation. They show comparatively little of the development of Browning's genius. He was much occupied with his wife, and he was also, it would seem, discouraged at the reception his works had met with. He formed a friendship with the Storys, at Rome, and began to draw and to model, and he is described as working hard and getting tired and talking of ideas that would come out in clay or marble. There was always a strong artistic taste in his temperament, and at this time it seems to have grown upon him at the expense of the poetical faculty. He did accomplish some poetry, writing by fits and starts when the mood came. He thought Mrs. Browning was the greater. "You are wrong, quite wrong," he wrote; "she has genius, I am only a painstaking fellow." The volume 'Men and Women' contains the principal work done during his married life. Mrs. Orr thinks that the Italian climate was beginning to have its weakening effect upon the poet, and something of his indisposition to write may have been due to that as well as to his unsettled life, with its duties, his wandering into other fields of art, and the lack of recognition. His marriage, however, had brought happiness, and the death of his wife was a severer blow than her invalid condition would seem to have justified. She died somewhat suddenly, and it is doubtful whether she knew the end was near. A letter from Browning is printed which describes in detail her last hours. This biography has the sanction of the poet's family, and therefore all that we shall say is, that if Browning, by diligently collecting and burning all his correspondence so far as he could, was yet unable to prevent the public from gazing upon the most sacred and tender scene in all his life, the effort to destroy such records may as well be abandoned. And, indeed, the reflection is obvious, after reading these volumes, that Browning's destruction of his papers has merely mutilated the work by making it barren of his personality in those parts where no record survives; in the rest, he remains, as every man must, at the mercy of his heirs and correspondents. In every such case, there will always be a large part of the papers of which possession cannot be obtained.

After the death of his wife, Browning's life presents nothing externally striking. He returned to England and became again a member of society. His vacations were spent in out-of-the-way places on the French Coast or in the mountains of northern Italy, and latterly at Venice. He produced the "murder-story," as he styles 'The Ring and the Book,' and then in succession the less successful of his works. His fame was now established, and the honors that were accorded to it, more especially the University honors, were pleasing to him. It is plain, too, that he was more flattered by the founding of the Browning Society than he could modestly acknowledge. In what he says of his literary reputation only one thing is particularly noticeable—his complaint that his friends had not spoken for him when their words would have had weight. He felt that it was not to critics and brother authors that he owed his public success. He was much irritated when he learned of the letter which Dickens wrote to Forster in praise of 'A Blot on the 'Scutcheon' and directed to have shown to him, but which he first saw in Forster's 'Life of Dickens' thirty years later. He writes comparing his present life in London with that of the earlier period:

"I used to go out then and see far more of merely literary people, writers, etc., than I do now—but what came of it? There were always a few people who had a certain opinion of my poems, but nobody cared to speak what he thought, or the things printed twenty-five years ago would not have waited so long for a good word; but at last a new set of men arrive who don't mind the conventionalities of ignoring one and seeing everything in another. Chapman says the new orders come from Oxford and Cambridge, and all my new cultivators are young men; more than that, I observe that some of my old friends don't like at all the irruption of outsiders who rescue me from their sober and private approval, and take those words out of their mouths 'which they always meant to say' and never did."

He was much devoted to Carlyle, and defended him after his death, but could not understand why he had not given in public the praise he gave privately, and he commented with just a touch of bitterness on some "extravagant eulogium" which in earlier days he had received from him tête-à-tête—"If only these words had ever been repeated in public, what good they might have done me!" Evidently he felt he had not only been neglected by the public, but also badly treated by those literary men who professed to value his work. In this way there was bred in him a certain indifference to the public which led to his allowing his naturally great eccentricity of mind full play. In his later works he practically ignored the public, and he furnishes a curious instance of a poet's misjudgment of his productions. "His constant conviction was," says Mrs. Orr, "that the latest must be the best, because the outcome of the fullest mental experience and of the longest practice in his art." This proves that he had no power of self-criticism. He wrote at a heat often, and this seems to have been always his habit in regard to shorter poems. At one time he determined to write a poem every day, and "Childe Roland" and "Women and Roses" were among those thus turned off. But he is also said to have corrected assiduously. In later life twenty or thirty lines in a morning was thought good work, and presumably this was a first draft to be afterwards revised. It does not appear that he had command of style, except so far as it sprang from strong feeling or a dramatic rather than a literary instinct; if he had possessed it, his "assiduous correction" would have been more effective. Another indication of this trait is that he denied that "even the first of Greek writers" were "models of literary style"; and Mrs. Orr adds this curious and enlightening remark: "The pretensions raised for them on this ground were inconceivable to him, and his translation

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of the 'Agamemnon,' published 1877, was partly made, I am convinced, for the pleasure of exposing these claims and of rebuking them." It has hitherto been thought that a certain affinity drew him to the Greek poet of most rugged style, but it seems he used his own talent for word-sculpture to "rebuke" those who enjoyed its grand form in Æschylus.

Another misconception which Mrs. Orr corrects is that which assumes much recondite learning in Browning because he wears the appearance of it; he had no taste for ancient chroniclers, or for such reading as his father delighted in, but he came on his dramatic subjects by accident, and undertook research only for the purpose of verification, except possibly in the case of 'Sordello.' Altogether his scholarship, except in Greek and Spanish literature, seems to have been much overestimated. Mrs. Orr indulges in a good deal of criticism, often of a careful kind, and indeed so severe at times as to verge on the scientific; but to examine it would require a separate article. She brings out the full meaning of 'La Saisiaz' as "conclusive both in form and matter as to his heterodox attitude towards Christianity"; it is a plea for the value to the soul of religious incertitude. He was, she says, "a Christian, in his way," as much at the time of this poem as ever since boyhood, but his argument leaves "no place for the idea, however indefinite, of a Christian revelation" on the subject of immortality: "Christ remained for Mr. Browning a mystery and a message of divine love, but no messenger of divine intention toward mankind." The remarks on "Christmas Eve" and "Easter-day" point the same moral; and Mrs. Orr sums up the matter finally by saying that "the Evangelical Christian and the subjective idealist philosopher were curiously blended in his composition." The whole criticism of Browning's religious ideas and impressions, though just from the point of view of a thinker, is coldly unsympathetic, and tends to bring out with a painful distinctness the very imperfect thinking of the poet. The point is a delicate one, but it is not so much so as the other question arising in the criticism of that "perverse" and "cynical" poem, "Fifine at the Fair," and those allied to it in theme. Mrs. Orr's defence is, that this plea for self-indulgence is merely dramatic, though she censures the poet for not making his condemnation plain; but though this were to be allowed, her defence of the related poem, "The Statue and the Bust," rests on a distinction of a jesuitical sort. The only remaining suggestion of great interest in her general criticism is that *Pompilia* derives her vitality as a woman from Mrs. Browning, from whom some of her qualities appear to have been studied.

Browning's personality is described by the biographer, not set forth in his own words and acts. In drawing the portrait towards the close of the work, she reverts to the heredity question of the first chapter. She thinks he derived from his mother, a delicate woman, that nervous excitability which was his dominant physical quality. His pulse was "slow and not strong," and he was obliged to make an effort in order to join in society. His "gayety" was not entirely natural and unforced. His "effusiveness" in "greeting alike old friends and new" is ascribed to "a momentary lack of self-possession," and his excited habit of dinner-table talk is said to have grown upon him as a result of the physical and moral effort he made from the first to be entertaining. His "loud voice," though perhaps somewhat due to the deafness of several of his early friends, bore the same "traces of unconscious nervous stimulation"; but though "natural to him in anger or excitement," this loudness was not always used. Mrs. Orr repeats his saying, "I am nervous to such a degree that I might fancy I could not enter a drawing-room, if I did not know from long experience that I can do it." Of course he could not make an impromptu speech. He was irritable by nature, and "even serious and private conversation on any subject on which he was not neutral" had its difficulties; "feeling, imagination, and the vividness of personal points of view constantly thwarted the attempt at a dispassionate exchange of ideas." He had his mind made up on most topics of the day, one of them being woman's suffrage, in favor of which he once contemplated writing a drama. In the last year of his life he changed his mind on the question, not on any rational ground.

Women attracted him far more than men. They were his confidants; he preferred their society, and he appealed to them by an "often caressing kindness of manner." He does not appear to have understood, in Mrs. Orr's judgment, the conventionalities and differences inherent in sex, but applied to women the same standard as to men, or, when he was "confronted with some divergence," he was perplexed and would say that it was "impossible to judge how a woman would act in such or such a case," when in fact "it would be inconceivable to a normal woman, and therefore to the generality of men, that she should act in any but one way." Mrs. Orr notices that none of the women of his poems are conventional. The firmest of his male friends appear to have been foreigners, but we see very little of such connections. His affections were more active as he grew older. "The parental instinct," says Mrs. Orr, "was among the weakest in his nature," but his devotion to his son was great. Other children he seems not to have cared for. "He was capable," she says again, "of the largest self-sacrifice and of the smallest self-denial," but with this she states that he was defective in broad sympathy. He made a virtue of happiness and cultivated it "directly and increasingly"; and "because of certain sufferings that had been connected with them he would often have refused to live his happiest days again." He was intolerant and hard in opposition, especially if he had a strong personal conviction and was interested in the subject. His strength was "passive" rather than "active," his disposition acquiescent and therefore optimistic. His admiration for men of genius was very great, and sincere towards his contemporaries; his love of fame and interest in his own success were the self-regarding side of this strong feeling.

Such traits as these which have been briefly mentioned are the leading lines of Mrs. Orr's portrait, and she shows an intimate knowledge and close observation of her friend. The whole is in keeping, and the intention of the author to tell the truth with considerable frankness is very plain. She has not made a hero of her subject—the *nimbus* is conspicuously absent. There may be disappointment that there is not more self-revelation of Browning; but he evidently expressed himself only in his works. His letters are uninteresting, and show, like the essay on Shelley, that he was an exception to the rule that poets write good prose. The loss of his papers is, therefore, probably immaterial.

RECENT PHILOSOPHICAL WORKS.

Hegel's Logic: A Book on the Genesis of the Categories of the Mind. A Critical Exposition. By William T. Harris. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1890. 12mo. Pp. 403.

The Philosophy of Right. With Special Reference to the Principles and Development of Law. By Diodato Lioy, Professor in the University of Naples. Translated from the Italian by W. Hastie, M.A., B.D. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 1891. Two vols. 8vo. Pp. 353 and 392.

The Philosophical Works of Leibnitz (Selections). Translated from the original Latin and French, with notes, by George Martin Duncan, Instructor in Mental and Moral Philosophy, Yale University. New Haven: Tuttle, Moorehouse & Taylor. 1890. 8vo, pp. 392.

Outlines of a Critical Theory of Ethics. By John Dewey, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Inland Press. 1891. 12mo, pp. 253.

The Soul of Man: An Investigation of the Facts of Physiological and Experimental Psychology. By Dr. Paul Carus. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Company. 1891. 12mo, pp. 458.

Some years ago Dr. McCosh told us, in his positive way, that Hegelianism had emigrated from its fatherland and had settled on the banks of the Mississippi. Prof. Harris and his little coterie were its prophets. St. Louis, however, is no longer its Mecca, for the chief of the elect has become United States Commissioner of Education at Washington, D. C., though he still interprets the Sibylline oracles of his master. Prof. Harris tells us in the preface that Hegel's Logic has been "a sort of centre in all his thinking since the year 1860," and that, when asked in 1883 to write this volume, he thought he could not "prepare a worthy book for twenty years." As a matter of fact, no one since Hegel tried it has been able to satisfy anybody about his system; and judging from the kind of success usually attained with Hegel, the secret when it is found cannot be transmitted or communicated. Prof. Harris's book has all the faults and none of the merits of Hegel. We question whether any other man in America knows what he means by any of the phrases on which the expression of his doctrine depends—"vanishing of the category of the vanishing," "passing into its opposites," "the negative of negatives is reality," "the becoming of individuality," "the identity of duality and particularity," and so on with fully two-thirds of the volume, in all sorts of permutations and combinations. If the admirers of Mr. Herbert Spencer understand what is meant by the "passage of the homogeneous into the heterogeneous," they can probably understand the foregoing. The professed interpreters of Hegel would do well in the future if they expressed themselves in plain English, as Mr. Spencer has done.

The 'Philosophy of Right' is rather a new book of its kind for English readers; but it is a very useful one. Paul Janet has two able volumes in French on the history of politics in relation to ethics, and some of us are hoping that Prof. Sidgwick will give us the results of his studies in the same direction; but until then we must be content with what other nations, and especially Italy, have done upon the relation between ethics and law or politics. Prof. Lioy's volumes are both too full and too brief. The summary of the history of philosophy might have been omitted, as it has not been written with a direct reference to the main subject. On the other hand, such topics as Commerce and the Family are treated much too briefly. Nevertheless, the discussion is philosophical and very comprehensive. The author's division of his subject, after his general survey in the "Prolegomena," is a peculiar

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one. He divides it into the "Objects of Right," which are religion, science, art, industry, commerce, morality, and justice, and the "Subjects of Right," which are the individual, family, classes, community, province, state, and international states. The chief fault of the work is that it is given too much to the statement of mere historical opinions on the matter, and the reader is left to take mere abstracts of men's views on authority, or suspend his judgment until he consults a thousand volumes to verify them. It would have been better to treat the subject more directly. The translator's preface is an admirable introduction, and his version is smooth and excellent English. The index, although new in its style for English, is a very good one.

The volume on Leibnitz has no external attractions whatever. The paper and type are very poor and the binding is of the worst. The translator might have made a wiser choice of material from Leibnitz, devoid of a theological tendency, and greatly improved his too perfunctory notes. A good and complete translation of that philosopher, with a careful estimation of his doctrine, in some such manner as T. H. Green has dealt with Hume, or Prof. Fraser with Berkeley, would be a very desirable work. As far as it goes, with some exceptions, Mr. Duncan's rendering is to be praised.

Prof. Dewey has disappointed us. We expected a volume at least equal to his 'Psychology' and his monograph on Leibnitz; but his 'Ethics' falls below the level of either. Prof. Dewey claims to have made here "an independent contribution to ethical science," but the evidence that the volume is merely classroom notes and dictations is so great that no one would suspect such an achievement on the author's part. Prof. Dewey evidently expects the book to be serviceable as a text-book, but we see in it few qualifications for that purpose. It is, to be sure, an improvement in method upon the old dogmatic systems of outlines and definitions; it is confined strictly to the theoretical issues of the day; but it is deficient in the essential features of a teacher's text. It is not systematic or complete, and contains too much historical discussion for so small a work to be adapted to such an object.

The volume by Dr. Carus is remarkable only for 152 illustrations and diagrams; not exactly of the soul, but of everything except that. Such an amount of ill-digested material is seldom put in book form for the philosophic public.

In Scripture Lands: New Views of Sacred Places. By Edward L. Wilson. With 150 illustrations from original photographs by the author. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

THIS is an account of a difficult, dangerous, and expensive trip made by a professional photographer from Egypt through Sinai to the head of the gulf of 'Akabah; thence up the 'Arabah to Petra, which, by an ingenious stratagem, he contrived to enter unobserved; thence through a part of the wilderness of et-Tih in search of Kadesh Barnea, and through the Negeb to Hebron; after which he seems to have travelled on beaten tracks through the Holy Land and to Damascus. The book is a further development of some illustrated magazine articles which appeared shortly after Mr. Wilson's return, and the chapter on Petra still bears the fingermarks of its independent origin. As might be expected, the main interest and value of the work lie in the illustrations, but the narrative of travel also, at least in the first part of the book, until the Palestinian border is reached, is interesting, and even exciting, and the descriptions are often picturesque.

The opening chapter narrates the finding of the mummy of Rameses II., and nearly forty other mummies "of kings, queens, princes, and priests," in the summer of 1881, and an account of the author's own visit to the site of the famous "find" in company with Emil Brugsch Bey and Prof. Maspero, a few months after the discovery. The text is accompanied by some excellent and very welcome illustrations. The two chapters which follow, devoted to Mt. Sinai and the trip up the 'Arabah, including the account of the artifice by which the author stole into Petra, are thoroughly readable and interesting, and, while they fail to tell much which might have been told, they nevertheless contribute, both by descriptions and illustrations, to a better knowledge of the region traversed. The fourth chapter, that on Petra, is by far the most important in the whole volume. For four days Mr. Wilson contrived, by dint of diplomacy, pluck, and much backsheesh, to remain in Petra, thus securing a valuable photographic record of the remarkable rock sculptures of the Nabathæan capital. His photographs of Petra, illustrations from about twenty of the best of which are given in this volume, constitute a real contribution to archæology. (It is to be regretted that they could not all be published on a larger scale.) This chapter is fascinating. It is not written from the standpoint of the archæologist, and the map (Strong and Ward's survey) is unsatisfactory and on too small a scale; but the illustrations are beautiful, the author fully appreciated the romantic and weird picturesqueness of the ruins and their surroundings, and the incidents of his sojourn were decidedly exciting.

Leaving Petra, Mr. Wilson, as already stated, struck westward into the wilderness of et-Tih in search of the oasis of Qadees, identified by Rowlands and Trumbull as Kadesh Barnea, and visited by the latter only the year before Mr. Wilson's trip. He failed to reach it, but reports the discovery of another large oasis "several miles north of 'Ain Qadees," which he believes to have been previously unvisited. His description sounds very much like Trumbull's description of 'Ain-el-Qadayrât, to the northwest of 'Ain-Qadees.

The remaining nine chapters of Mr. Wilson's book deal with lands often travelled and frequently described, and, with one exception, contain nothing worthy of particular notice. The narrative is rambling and the historical and other allusions inaccurate and unscientific. The only excuse for this portion of the work is the very pretty illustrations.

The exception referred to is chap. ix., a discussion from the pen of Dr. Chas. S. Robinson on the site of Calvary, advocating the claims of the hill, just outside of the Damascus gate, in which is the cave now known as Jeremiah's Grotto. The argument turns on the form of the hill, which is supposed to resemble a skull, a resemblance further fortified by "two cavities or holes in the rock; these served as eyeless sockets." Mr. Wilson's photographs, which accompany the article, do not exhibit this resemblance to a skull, which Dr. Robinson seems to have been able to observe only from a certain point on the Mount of Olives; neither, studying the question on the spot, did the present writer see any strongly marked likeness to a skull. Furthermore, supposing such a resemblance to exist at the present time, did it exist at the commencement of the Christian era? Everything around Jerusalem has been so modified and transformed by the accumulations and excavations of the ages that, as in Rome, no reliance can be placed on the argument from external form except in the case of a few main features. Without applying the magnifying glass or the spade, you cannot be sure of recognizing the ancient landmarks of Jerusalem from their present appearance. This argument from form must therefore be pronounced weak. A passage is quoted, however (p. 233), from Laurence Oliphant's 'Haifa,' in which the latter claims that the Mishnah and current tradition satisfactorily identify Jeremiah's Grotto, or rather the hill above it, with "the House of Stoning," or place of public execution mentioned in the Talmud about A.D. 150. Here is a suggestion of a strong argument, but even here proofs fail, and up to the present time, while the arguments against the traditional site of Calvary, within the limits of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, are, if not absolutely convincing, nevertheless strong enough to create a decided presumption against that site, nothing like proof of the claims of any other site has been presented. The discussion has raised questions which can probably be settled finally only by scientific, continuous, and systematic excavations in and about Jerusalem, which are not allowed by the Turkish Government. In the meantime we must be content to confess that our actual knowledge of the topography of ancient Jerusalem is meagre and uncertain in the extreme.

The Compounding of English Words: When and Why Joining or Separation is Preferable; with concise rules and alphabetical lists. By F. Horace Teall. New York: John Ireland. 1891. Pp. 223.

THIS treatise is a chapter in the English usage of the hyphen, a protest against the excessive employment of that point, and an endeavor to lay down rules for compounding that will secure the greatest possible consistency. It is, the author believes, and we have no doubt, the first work of its kind, and one much needed. Mr. Teall, who comes of a family of proof-readers, knows by experience the difficulty of securing uniformity of punctuation, and was well qualified to expose the inconsistent practice of the natural authority in the matter of compounds, the Dictionary. He interests the reader at once by a destructive attack, in this particular, on Webster, the Imperial, Worcester, and even Dr. Murray's 'New English Dictionary,' whose editors he easily and abundantly convicts of negligence or want of fixed principles. The rules of the grammarians are in turn examined and confuted, but less effectively and clearly, because they are not taken up by themselves in close sequence with the exposure of their fellow-sinners. Mr. Teall, in fact, having got through—at least for the moment—with the lexicographers, begins his general discussion in his third chapter, and incidentally castigates the grammarians all the way along to the eighth chapter, which specifically deals with "Bad Teaching by Noted Teachers." In chapter seven he gives a useful annotated list of phrases needlessly compounded; in chapter eleven, an even more useful list of inseparable compounds.

These two lists will, we believe, float the work, for Mr. Teall has not the gift of clear expression and definition, and his arrangement is very defective. The several classes whom he aims to serve—"authors, printers, teachers, telegraphers, stenographers, typewriters, and all who care for the correct writing of English"—would have been content with a mere dictionary of compound words, which Mr. Teall pronounces "impracticable,

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